DOCTORAL THESIS

Toward a Psychological Typology for Victims of Interpersonal Violent Crimes: An Empirical Analysis of Behavioural Characteristics and Personality Traits.

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Toward a Psychological Typology for Victims of Interpersonal Violent Crimes:

An Empirical Analysis of Behavioural Characteristics and Personality Traits

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Abstract

Despite considerable development in the field of victimology, including efforts to examine proximal and distal features of criminal victimisation, there remains a need to focus attention on intra-individual victim-related risk factors. While acknowledging controversial debates about concepts such as "victim-precipitation" and "victim-blaming" in the context of perceptions about the "sanctity" of the victim, this thesis directly addresses psychological characteristics associated with the risk of victimisation.

Aims: This doctoral project has three specific research aims that necessitated a step-wise process. The first goal is to advance a psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violent crime that focuses on behavioural characteristics and personality traits, based on data drawn from a sample of self-identified victims. The second aim is to apply the types within this newly developed psychological typology for victims to a set of interpersonal violent offences, namely domestic violence, sexual assault, stalking, physical assault, and polyvictimisation. The third task is to compare the behavioural characteristics and personality traits of the refined psychological typology with the four existing typologies that served as the analytic basis of this research.

Method: This thesis advances an empirically based psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violence based on extant typologies, largely following the work of Groth from the 1970s. In total, 24 variables, comprising 13 behavioural characteristics and 11 personality traits, were extracted from the four foundational typologies and used to construct a 488-item questionnaire delivered online to 160 self-identified victims of interpersonal violence. A Principal Component Analysis was performed on those variables and a psychological typology was developed. Tests of association were conducted on the crime categories and the types yielded in the typology. The final step comprising a comparison between the victim typology and the previous ones then guided the refinement of the elicited victim types.

Results: This typology comprises five types: (1) Reassurance-oriented, (2) Anger-oriented, (3) Assertive-oriented, (4) Risk-taking-oriented, and (5) Self-preservation-oriented (the latter with externally or internally-oriented sub-types). The findings suggest, that a number of behavioural characteristics and personality traits are associated with risk of victimisation especially self-esteem, anger, assertiveness, risk-taking, and self-preservation. The analysis also highlights five associations between the types of the psychological typology and some crime categories, namely self-preservation with domestic violence, anger with sexual and physical assault, and anger, risk-taking, and self-preservation for victims of more than one interpersonal violent offence.

Objectives: This thesis presents the first empirical research to utilise a self-report questionnaire that examines behavioural characteristics and personality traits of victims of interpersonal violent crime. Ultimately, this study contributes to expanding current knowledge about crime victims and related characteristics, aids epistemological understanding and provides a heuristic device in the form of a psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violence. These outcomes have implications for further theory development, greater attention to intra-individual factors in the disciplines of criminology and victimology, and can ultimately assist in the refining of justice procedures and the delivery of victim support services.

Key Words: Behaviours – Interpersonal Violent Crime – Personality Traits – Psychology – Risk-Factors – Victim – Victimology – Victim-Offender Overlap.

Declaration

This thesis is submitted to Bond University in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. This thesis represents my own original work towards this research and contains no material which has been previously submitted for a degree or diploma at this University or any other institution, except where due acknowledgement is made.

Gaelle L. M. Brotto
Signature:

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I am dedicating this dissertation to my dad, who passed away too early.

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Abbreviations

Aggression Questionnaire	AQ
American Psychiatric Association	APA
Anger Self-Report Questionnaire	ASR
Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire	BPAQ
Canadian Resource Centre for Victims of Crime	CRCVC
Cumulative Humiliation Subscale	CHS
Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (5th Ed.)	DSM-5
Dickman Impulsivity Inventory-Short Version	DII-Short
Displaced Aggression Questionnaire	DAQ
Domestic Violence	DV
General Self-Efficacy Scale	GSE
Mean Average	M
Narcissistic Personality Inventory-16	NPI-16
Number of Cases	*n*
Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory Revised	PFAI-Revised
Physical Assault	PA
Polyvictimisation	PV
Principal Component Analysis	PCA
Revised Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale	R-JFFIS
Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale	RSES
Scale of Economic Abuse	SEA
Self-Harm Inventory	SHI
Sexual Assault	SA
Social Interaction Anxiety Scale	SIAS
Stalking	ST
Standard Deviation	SD
Subtypes of Antisocial Behaviour Questionnaire	STAB
Threat-Related Reassurance Seeking Scale	TRSS
Total Number of Cases	*N*

Chapter One: Introduction

Overview of the Study Area

The empirical study of crime victims has expanded in the past 40 years and grown exponentially since the term "victimology" was proffered by Mendelsohn in 1940. The increased attention to victims in the academic realm is reflected in criminal justice processes and similarly paralleled in much political, media, and public discourse (Kearon & Godfrey, 2007). More is now known about crime victims than at any point in our history and yet the clarity of our understanding is clouded by the complexities of the role of the victim in the crime event (Kearon & Godfrey, 2007; Schafer, 1977; Spalek, 2006).

The idea of a focus on victims for the understanding of crime is not new. As early as 1887, Cesare Lombroso put forward the idea of the impact that victim-provoked emotions can have on a "passionate criminal" (Trans. Régnier & Bournet, 2005). Similarly, Ferri (1908/2009), described victims as "pseudo-criminals" who broke the law for reasons of self-defence, and Garafalo (1905/1914) called attention to sets of victim behaviours that could provoke offender criminal actions. Other pioneering work, such as that of von Hentig (1948), had the most significant impact because it highlighted the importance of the roles of the victim in the understanding of crime. He also introduced the notion of the "doer-sufferer" relationship and controversially the victim as a "cause of crime" for the first time (von Hentig, 1948, pp. 383-384) stating:

> Doer-sufferer relation is put in our codes in mechanical terms …, the relationships between the perpetrator and the victim are much more intricate. … It may happen that the two distinct categories merge. There are cases in which they are reversed and in the long chain of causative forces the victim to assume the role of a determinant.

In 1958, Wolfgang, conducted the first systematic study of victim involvement in the crime category of homicide and introduced the term "victim-precipitation", which led others to apply the concept to similar predatory crimes. However, this promising work was problematic as it raised the spectre of "victim-blaming", and therefore had to be "avoided at all scholarly cost, even truth" (Meier & Miethe, 1993, p. 460). It is crucial to

keep in mind that in any criminal event, especially in interpersonal violent crimes, there is an exchange and a set of situational and psychological factors that have implications on the dynamics involved in the crime incident (Hamby & Grych, 2013; von Hentig, 1948). Most instances of domestic violence, sexual assault, and assault stem ultimately from a conflict. Consequently, it is important to "examine the factors that lead individuals to become involved in disputes whether as victims or offenders" (Berg & Felson, 2016, p. 87). The psychological characteristics of both victim and offender at the time of the crime are significant to the outcome of the social interaction (Berg & Felson, 2016). This view is somewhat oppositional to current popular discourse, and much of the criminological enterprise, where the "crime victim is usually described as the direct opposite of the offenders in terms of characteristics and needs" (Heber, 2014, p. 410).

However, as shown by a growing number of research studies, there is not such a clear dichotomy between victims and offenders. Instead, there is theoretical and empirical overlap between parties to criminal incidents that is now being more widely recognised (Dignan, 2005; Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Muftic & Hunt, 2012; Schreck, Stewart, & Fisher, 2006; Schreck, Stewart, & Osgood, 2008; Singer, 1981). Victims and perpetrators are not necessarily two distinct groups, as they do share similar characteristics and are, in many cases, the same types of people (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Lauristen & Laub, 2007; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017; Tillyer & Wright, 2014).

Given this acknowledgement of the concordance between victims and offenders, it is now time to turn to the wealth of knowledge that has built up in the last century of criminological enterprise. One thread within the discipline is the development of typologies which, while criticised as simplistic and descriptive labelling devices, have been foundational in criminology. There has however been little attention to developing typologies for victims in the manner in which they have been constructed for offenders. Further, these offender types often concentrate on intra-individual or psychological features of perpetrators and yet very little scholarly attention has been devoted to the personal behaviours and traits of victims. It is for these reasons that this thesis examines risk of victimisation by drawing on the body of knowledge about offenders, using the insights from typologies and with the spotlight firmly on personal characteristics, especially in the realm of interpersonal violence.

This introductory chapter first highlights the rationale behind this dissertation and the empirical study that underpins it. Then, it provides the contextual framework of this thesis by demonstrating how extant typologies were harnessed to yield the psychological factors, largely drawn from the work of Groth in the 1970s but including a recent victim typology. This section also sets out the main ingredients that constitute the foundation of the present dissertation, namely the six fundamental concepts that are synthesised in this research project. These are the broad sub-discipline of victimology, the notion of victim-offender overlap, the general offence category of interpersonal violence, the risk perspective, the importance of taking an individual or psychological approach, and the harnessing of typologies. This chapter also outlines the purpose of this dissertation by highlighting the main research aims and methods used to conduct the present study. In essence, this undertaking advances a typology that identifies psychological features, namely behavioural characteristics and personality traits, of victims of specific interpersonal violent crimes, that is, domestic violence, sexual assault, stalking, and physical assault to increase our knowledge about particular intra-individual risk factors for victimisation. The final section outlines the structure of the dissertation, describing the content of each chapter, and concludes with an overview of the perceived outcomes of the current research project.

Rationale for this Dissertation

Although more research has been conducted in recent years into the understanding of criminal victimisation, there still remains a lag in comparison with the number of studies focusing on the development and empirical testing of theories explaining criminal offending (Addington, 2008, p. 1):

> A perusal of a few leading criminology journals over the past 2 years illustrates the present situation. *Criminology* (the official academic journal of the American Society of Criminology) published two articles that concerned victimization issues. This number represents 3% of its articles over the past 2 years. During the same period, *Justice Quarterly* (the official academic journal of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences) published five victimization articles, which reflect 12% of its articles.

This snapshot of the scholarly output in key criminological venues is instructive in underscoring the paucity of attention to victims in general. There may be many reasons for this discrepancy but as stated by Zur (1994, para. 23), a lack of research into why victimisation occurs could be related to the following observation:

> Very few writers have warned against the unrealistic and ultimately patronizing portrayal of victims of crime as total innocents …, while most scholars have avoided this field altogether, for fear of being accused of "blaming the victim". Do not blame the victim has been translated into: do not explore the role of the victim.

At this point, an important caveat has to be made. It is necessary to distinguish between implying that victims are responsible for their own victimisation versus gaining a more comprehensive understanding through the scientific investigation of factors that correlate with risk of victimisation (Franklin et al., 2011). Yet, adding to our store of knowledge is essential for academics to advance theoretical explanations of victimisation, especially given the small number of victim-centred theories of crime (Cantor & Lynch, 2000), and for policy makers to tailor effective programs and justice procedures.

It is important to recognise that criminology is still strongly influenced by societal stereotypes about "monstrous perpetrators" and "virtuous victims" (Heber, 2014). These over simplified, two-dimensional depictions may satisfy desires for a just world, but they do not accurately depict the lives of many people and how they become caught up in violence (Hamby & Grych, 2013). Most studies have treated victims and offenders as separate entities, while a focus should be made on both components of the violent encounter (Posick, 2012) because it is difficult to understand offending or victimisation without consideration of both (Lauritsen & Laub, 2007; Lauritsen, Sampson, & Laub, 1991). This research aligns with the assumptions of Lauritsen and colleagues (1991) and considers victimisation to be as important as offending: two concepts that should be studied together.

Such considerations of these interconnections are even more pivotal when the generalised offence classification of interpersonal violent crime is examined. Interpersonal violence is an issue that has received increased attention within victimology over the last few decades (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012; Mukherjee & Carcach, 1998), especially as it is a leading cause of death and disability around the world (Collins, 2008; Krug et al., 2002). For victims, interpersonal violence can have both immediate and long-lasting outcomes, such as mortality, physical and psychological damage, disability, and enduring social problems (Krug et al., 2002). These forms of crimes, exemplified by stalking, sexual assault, or domestic violence, are often hidden from scrutiny or are under-reported, and are serial in nature with the potential to lead to revictimisation. They are likewise the offence types most likely to involve an exchange

or relationship between parties to the crime event and where intra-individual factors are most evident (Berg & Felson, 2016).

While it is conceded that victims and offenders share proximal, situational, and distal broad features (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Sampson & Laub, 1991), it is by examining the intra-individual characteristics of the victim that "criminology can be transformed, from being a static one-sided study of the offender, to being a dynamic, situational approach which views criminal behaviour as the outcome of a processes of interaction" (Spalek, 2006, p. 35). In the last decade or two, the necessity to focus on the psychology of criminal behaviour has been emphasised (Andrews & Bonta, 2010; Wortley, 2011), and because of the established concordance between victims and offenders there are analogous suggestions that the psychology of victims requires serious attention. Until now, the "psychological mechanisms in victims that might underlie the link between victimization and revictimization have been largely ignored" probably by fear of "victim-blaming" (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012, p. 34). Some studies have addressed this lacuna (Classen, Palesh, & Aggarwal, 2005; Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012; Nettelbeck & Wilson, 2002) where a limited range of intra-personal characteristics such as anger and self-esteem impact on victimisation, but they all concede that more work is required.

Even though a small number of studies do address the intra-individual characteristics, they tend to be crime specific (e.g. intimate partner violence or sexual assault) or individual-oriented (e.g. individuals with disability), when a more global focus would seem beneficial. For instance, in a study conducted on 74 female help-seeking victims of intimate partner violence, anger and violent behaviour of the victims were strong predictors of revictimisation by partners (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012). In another study, individuals with an intellectual disability were found to be at least three times more likely than individuals without to be victims of assault, sexual assault, and robbery (Wilson et al., 1996). However, it was not the fact that they were faced with disabling conditions that increased their risk of victimisation but "rather how people behaved and how that behaviour might promote a reaction from an offender" that was of most significance, especially the characteristic of anger (Wilson et al., 1996, p. 1). Given this small but expanding corpus of empirical research it is timely to broaden the

focus to encompass such examinations of intra-personal characteristics but across multiple forms of interpersonal violence.

Overview of Conceptual Framework

The genesis of this thesis is informed by the first typologies that directly address psychological features of individuals which is a key aspect of the present project. Because of the well-acknowledged victim-offender overlap, this research utilises existing typologies, albeit developed for violent offenders, but centring on psychological features. These are largely based around the foundational work of Groth in the 1970s which led others to further develop and expand his typology (Hazelwood, 2009; Petherick & Turvey, 2008). More recently, firmly following the work of Groth and its subsequent iterations, Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), proposed a specifically victim-based categorisation. The "victim motivational typology" was created to understand the emotional and psychological milieu of victimisation and is pivotal in the current undertaking, as it is a "reflection of the offender typologies" which are "applied to the behaviours of victims" (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 414). As stated by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014, p. 409):

> While those typologies relate to offender behaviour, it should be noted that they are a fitting representation of general motivational dynamics, and as such they apply not only equally to victims but also as descriptors of more common everyday behaviours. This is because criminals (and victims) experience the same depth and breadth of emotions and needs as all others, and so it should be not surprising that their behaviour serves many of the same needs. It is usually in the execution of these behaviours and the choices they make that they differ.

Their typology comprises seven types: reassurance-oriented victims, assertive-oriented victims, anger-retaliatory victims, pervasively angry victims, excitation-oriented victims, materially-oriented victims, and self-preservation-oriented victims. Four of these types originally described by Groth and colleagues (1977) were maintained and are therefore common across the derivative typologies (Hazelwood, 2009; Petherick & Turvey, 2008) ─ namely power-reassurance, power-assertive, anger-retaliatory, and anger-excitation. It should be stressed that the "victim motivational typology" however, is not drawn from empirical research and so is rather an explanatory typology; thus further work is required to establish the empirical bases of the types and determine the characteristics associated with each type.

Drawing upon these typological foundations, this thesis is guided by six main concepts: victim/victimology, victim-offender overlap, interpersonal violence, risk perspective, psychological features, and the harnessing of typologies. These highlight the focus on victims that this dissertation adopts and thus the overarching perspective is one from the field of victimology that nevertheless endorses the overlap between victims and offenders. The more specific nucleus of the research is on determining psychological risk factors for harm. Then, the utilisation of typologies is both a tool from which the behavioural characteristics and personality traits are derived but also a product of the research effort. Finally, the offence category of interpersonal violence represents the crime context, where the overlap is particularly evident and personal characteristics play a determinant role. These six fundamental concepts are admittedly not mutually exclusive but they are the key ingredients that inform the current research enterprise.

Victim/Victimology: This thesis is concerned with the study of crime victims and situated within the sub-discipline of victimology and guided by a critical but positivist perspective. Often the enterprise of victimology is overborne by political and special interest forces and thus maintaining an objective scientific perspective is fraught with difficulty. As indicated above victims are often placed in a deified role and there is a sense of "sanctity" that veils the field from more critical scrutiny. As also highlighted previously, despite the heightened attention to studies of victims the scholarly output would suggest that this is still very limited, often through fear of "victim-blaming" (Zur, 1994). This research project therefore endorses the need to empirically test our knowledge about victims and contribute to the scholarly literature, while simultaneously embracing the exhortation that crime victims should not be sacrosanct and therefore their role in interpersonal violence ought to be considered.

Victim-Offender Overlap: The concept of victim-offender overlap occupies an important area of research in criminology and is a constant component of the literature as patterns of victimisation and offending are not necessarily separate entities. While the similarities are theoretically and empirically recognised, there is still a propensity to treat victims and offenders as mutually exclusive groups (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017). In addition, the statistical overlap is largely concentrated on broader socio-demographic factors with an absence of attention to individual similarities (Andrew & Bonta, 2010). Even though this dissertation is concerned exclusively with victims, it takes the perspective that a more holistic understanding of the personal

characteristics that are shared by victims and offenders is essential.

Interpersonal Violence: It is acknowledged that interpersonal violence is a complex notion, which, depending on the source, includes different categories such as elderly abuse, child abuse, and robbery (Krug et al., 2002; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000; Walby & Allen, 2004). However, and for the purpose of the present project, the interpersonal violent crime categories that will be reported throughout this thesis will be limited to domestic violence, sexual assault, stalking, and physical assault as they are likely to involve individuals in close personal relationships who are strongly interconnected (Hamby & Grych, 2013). For example, domestic violence can involve incidents of stalking, sexual assault, and physical assault; likewise, episodes of stalking could lead to threats or actual sexual and physical assault. Moreover, those interpersonal violent crimes are also likely to be serial and ongoing in nature and therefore encompass revictimisation and polyvictimisation (Daigle & Fisher, 2013; Hamby & Grych, 2013).

Risk Perspective: The notion of risk is highly inculcated in the recent criminological literature despite contention over its meaning (O'Malley, 2006) but most often it is evoked for offenders and for property-related crimes (Drucker, 2001; Shader, 2001). When victims are central to risk discussions they tend to revolve around the topic of fear of crime (Addington, 2009; Ferraro, 1995). In taking a risk perspective this thesis eschews the notion of victim-blaming and the arguments around neo-liberal individual-level responsibilisation. However, undertaking a data-based study to determine the victim-related psychological risk factors is expected to contribute to knowledge about risk and ultimately provide guidance to the field of crime prevention (Hamby & Grych, 2013).

Psychological Features: Following the challenges proposed by Andrews and Bonta (2010) and Wortley (2011) to adopt a psychological perspective in criminology, this dissertation seeks to promote a sub-field of psychological victimology. It is acknowledged that psychology covers a wide range of concepts; however, within the parameters of this dissertation, psychological features include behavioural characteristics such as antisocial and risky behaviours, substance abuse, or aggression; as well as personality traits that include any emotional quality or dimension of personality; all of which could be linked to victimisation. The psychological features harnessed here are those that have been previously applied to offenders because criminals and victims "experience the same depth and breadth of emotions and needs as all others" (Petherick

& Sinnamon, 2014, p. 409). Psychological attributes are of special importance in crimes of interpersonal violence as violence occurs in the midst of a dyadic or ongoing relationship in which both parties interact within the confines of situational features as well as being impacted by social determinants (Hamby & Grych, 2013).

Harnessing of Typologies: While there are criticisms of typologies because they are deemed simplistic, descriptive, and often the types are not mutually exclusive, they assist in classifying individuals in order to capture social reality (Doty & Glick, 1994). This dissertation relies on typologies to categorise self-identified crime victims, because contrary to what is often assumed in public and political discourse crime victims are heterogeneous and do not conform to the notions of the "ideal" type. In this thesis, the utilisation of typologies is two-fold: it is first a tool from which the behavioural characteristics and personality traits are derived (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Hazelwood, 2009; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014); and also an outcome of the research effort in the development of a psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violence.

Overview of the Theoretical Framework

Most theories of crime "often set victims aside", which leaves the understanding of the victim role "either undetermined or implicit" (Schreck, Stewart, & Osgood, 2008, p. 893). Few early attempts to theorise about individual differences in risk of victimisation exist but are limited and mainly descriptive typologies that have received scant attention (von Hentig, 1948; Mendelson, 1956). Nevertheless, these are two selected theories that have dominated the study of criminal victimisation for the last four decades and provide the framework for exploring the data, namely lifestyle/routine activity theory (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Hindelang, Gottfredson, & Garofalo, 1978) and self-control theory (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990).

The first framework, lifestyle/routine activity theory suggests that crime is the result of the convergence in time and space between a motivated offender, a vulnerable target (victim), and the absence of a capable guardian (Felson, 2002). This is known as the "Crime Triangle" (Felson, 2002). This theory stipulates that "behaviours that are 'risky' (i.e., violent, criminal, or deviant)" may directly elevate the risk of victimisation (Turanovic & Pratt, 2014, p. 31). A wide range of criminal victimisation has been

supported by this framework, such as violent victimisation in general (Schreck & Fisher, 2004), stalking (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2000), sexual harassment (Clodfelter et al., 2010), street robbery (Groff, 2007), and drug users (Koo, Chitwood, & Sanchez, 2008) among others. In general, any lifestyle and routine activities that involve "recreational and social pursuit of fun" such as binge drinking, drug use, and partying have been described as associated with risk of victimisation (Jensen & Brownfield, 1986, p. 82).

The second framework is the General Theory of Crime or self-control theory (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). The self-control theory was initially proposed to explain criminal and analogous non-criminal acts (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). However, with more than a decade of scholarly efforts, the self-control victimisation link is now also theoretically well-established (Jennings et al., 2010; Schreck, 1999; Schreck, Wright, & Miller, 2002; Turanovic & Pratt, 2014). The theory, as applied to criminal victimisation, posits that "people who lack self-control will act impulsively to address immediate concerns with little attention to the future costs of their actions" (Posick, 2012, p. 60).

In recent literature, the pairing of lifestyle/routine activity theory with self-control theory has "resulted in better understanding of both the individual and situational contexts associated with victimization experiences" (Ren et al., 2017, p. 695). Thus, it the risky behaviours (e.g. drug abuse, stealing, or fighting) which individuals with low self-control are more likely to engage in, that put them in the proximity of offenders and place them at higher risk of victimisation (Shreck, 1999). These two theoretical frameworks, will form the basis from which this dissertation will explore and critically analyse victimological and risk perspectives at the individual level in relation to interpersonal violence. Because there is a growing body of evidence of an existing overlap between victimisation and offending, some will argue that theories that account for crime should explain victimisation as well (Schreck, Stewart, & Osgood, 2008). The current study uses a psychological typology to examine a new aspect of the victim-offender overlap which will help determine whether it is worthwhile to pursue integrated theories to account for these phenomena.

Purpose of this Dissertation

This thesis explores whether victims by behaving or by possessing special traits unintentionally increases their risk of victimisation. The research goal of this doctoral

project is to identify psychological features, that is behavioural characteristics and personality traits, of victims of specific interpersonal violent crime, namely domestic violence, sexual assault, stalking, and physical assault, to increase our knowledge about particular intra-individual risk factors that modulate the risk of victimisation. In order to achieve this, three specific research aims that necessitated a step-wise process were devised:

1. To advance a psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violent crime that focuses on behavioural characteristics and personality traits, based on empirical data.

2. To apply the types of the advanced psychological typology for victims to a set of interpersonal violent offences, namely domestic violence, sexual assault, stalking, physical assault, and polyvictimisation.

3. To compare the behavioural characteristics and personality traits of the refined psychological typology for victims with the extant offender and victim typologies.

This empirical research was conducted by analysing self-identified Australian crime victim survey responses. First, to advance a psychological typology for crime victims, discrete behavioural characteristics and personality traits were extracted from the four typologies that comprise the foundation of the current study (i.e. Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Hazelwood, 2009; Petherick & Turvey, 2008; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). For this purpose, the definitions of each type of the four typologies were scrutinised in order to extract the key psychological features, namely behavioural characteristics and personality traits. This task required substantial research and analytical work. After removing offender only features, a list of 24 measurable variables, more precisely 13 behavioural characteristics and 11 personality traits were isolated. For each of these variables, a validated self-report scale was located and included in the survey instrument. The final version of the questionnaire included 440 items from those 24 matched scales, plus 15 demographic questions, and 33 items of a social desirability bias scale. In total, the survey questionnaire included 488 items and was available through a link on a Facebook community page that redirected potential participants to an online survey platform.

Data analysis was conducted using SPSS Version 24, and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed. From the data, a seven-factor typology was extracted. An initial draft of the first empirical psychological typology of victims of interpersonal violence was therefore developed and used to classify the participants of this research. Categorical regression and Chi-square tests of association were used in order to determine if any specific crime categories were associated with any victim type. The comparison between the victim typology and the previous ones then guided the refinement of the final victim types.

Structure of the Dissertation

This thesis is divided into five Chapters. Chapter One has given a brief outline of the ingredients that comprise the dissertation and the study which underpins it. Chapter Two, the literature review, is divided into four sections. Section one presents an overview of crime victims throughout history to provide the broad picture of what is known about crime victims today. This section is important as it details evidence of the victim-offender overlap from a theoretical and empirical point of view as well as a rationale for focusing on more than one type of interpersonal violent crime. The second section of the literature review focuses on the risk perspective. First, it includes an overview of the literature on risk and how it has informed the discipline of criminology. Then, it presents the main risk factors associated with victimisation. This section is an important part of the literature review, as it demonstrates the limited research on intrapersonal features that are associated with risk of victimisation. The third section of the literature review canvasses key understandings about the main psychological variables and their importance to explaining criminal events. The section provides a discussion on the value of exploring psychological characteristics as it is an attempt to explain individual diversity and provide a better understanding of human behaviours. The final section of the literature review explores the use of typologies within the discipline of criminology in particular to highlight their utility and well-established use within the social sciences. It also provides a critique of typologies for while they are well-used they are not without severe limitations. This section is crucial for the development of a victim typology, as it introduces the earliest victim typologies and demonstrates the necessity to pay greater attention to psychological aspects and empirical underpinnings. This section also highlights how offender psychological typologies might improve our understanding of

crime victims.

Chapter Three is a description of the methodology used in this research. First, details of the recruitment methods and respondents are provided. Then, how the questionnaire was constructed is presented. This section of the chapter comprises a lengthy description of all 24 variables used in the questionnaire, because it is essential to canvass each one at length, as these are fundamental to the overall research design. This chapter also includes a description of the statistical analyses performed. Chapter Four describes the findings derived from the data analysis. First, it provides an overview of the sample. Then, it presents the results of the PCA that has been used to advance the psychological typology for crime victims. A seven-factor model was extracted from the PCA analysis and used to classify the crime victims into the developed typology (albeit later refined). Finally, the last step in the analysis used categorical regression and Chi-square 2x2 tests of association to determine whether there were specific interpersonal offence categories associated with specific victim types. The final chapter (Chapter Five) consists of the discussion and conclusion of this thesis. It synthesises information regarding the results described in Chapter Four based on the literature examined in Chapter Two. It is followed by a more general discussion and presentation of the broader implications of the current research, outlines the limitations of the study as well as suggesting directions for future research endeavours.

Significance of the Dissertation

The present research is original in that it is the only one, thus far, that empirically validates a typology based on behavioural characteristics and personality traits of crime victims. This thesis delivers some heuristic value for both criminology and victimology, as it provides a new device that has some analytical and practical value that can be applied towards theorising, future empirical endeavours, and as a guide for policy and program construction. Empirically deriving a victim typology adds to our repository of knowledge by capturing data from victims of interpersonal violent crime, which will allow a better understanding of intrapersonal characteristics that might put individuals at risk of victimisation. Growing this body of knowledge is critical for the advancement of the field and the discipline as a whole. This work is anticipated to foster the emergence of future studies on psychological features of crime victims.

Even though criminology has acknowledged the link between victims and offenders, until now, most theoretical and empirical work has been concentrated on the patterning and predictors of offending or victimisation separately (Jennings, Piquero & Reingle, 2012). Theory building is bolstered by having recourse to both victims and offenders in order to develop common etiological explanations and recognise that victims and offenders are not binary opposites. The present work highlights the need to blur the distinction between victims and offenders because there is a necessity to embrace the evidence that most predictors of offending are also predictors of victimisation.

The development of an empirically-derived victim typology has significance as it perpetuates the tradition of creating and utilising typologies, for even though they can be reductionist and overly simplistic, their utility as a heuristic device should not be underestimated. Instructively this is a victim typology based on intra-individual features, so that the pendulum in both criminology and victimology may well swing back to a focus on personal characteristics. Of course, this is not meant to be at the expense of maintaining effort to examine proximal situational and distal broad features but there has been a reluctance it seems to examine behavioural and personality factors for fear of victim-blaming. Again, there is a fundamental distinction between the "scientific investigation of factors that correlate" with risk of victimisation and "the normative values that suggest that [victims] themselves are responsible for their experiences" (Franklin et al., 2011, p. 4).

It is expected that this thesis could bring additional advantages in the long term. First, this thesis can be practical, as it is expected that giving an insight into the behavioural characteristics and personality traits of crime victims that are linked with risk of victimisation could potentially reduce victimisation. Indeed, understanding the psychological state of the victim could provide new crime prevention techniques and solutions, could furnish a better approach for the management of victims in specialised services, and could lead to the development of therapeutic interventions from a mental health point of view (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). For example, given that victim support services, as well as those offered to offenders, tend to adopt a dichotomised view of these two groups, the dissertation has the potential to influence the way that programs are devised and implemented. One instructive example shows that victim assistance costs Australia about AU$880 million a year and includes, among others, injury compensation or victim support units (Smith et al., 2014). It is also

the cases that gaining a greater understanding of the risk factors associated between crime categories and victim types could aid understanding of interpersonal violent crime in general as these crimes are often entrenched forms of victimisation, serial in nature, difficult to intervene in, and often occur in private space with the propensity to be hidden from scrutiny. Furthermore, it could help in the refinement of criminal justice procedures where knowledge about victim risk and enhanced comprehension of its contributions to crime events could lead to alternate forms of dispute resolution or reforms to the law. Practically, it is expected that an understanding of what might put victims in harm's way will potentially contribute to reducing crime and victimisation and, therefore, have an economic impact especially in regard to the cost of victimisation to Australia.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This review of the literature is divided into four main sections, each of which will give background to the main threads this thesis relies upon, victims of crime, victim-offender overlap, interpersonal violent crime, risk perspective, psychological risk factors, and typologies. The first section will endeavour to highlight the historical emergence of the study of crime victims, which went from a "Golden Age" where victims and their relatives were responding to the problem, to a "Dark Age" where victims were ignored figures in the criminal justice process, and subsequently to a new age where victims are slowly being rediscovered (Doerner & Lab, 2015). However, the shift of focus seems to have progressed to the point where the ideal victims portrayed in much political, media, and public discourse is not in accordance with statistical reality (Dignan, 2005; Kearon & Godfrey, 2007). This section then provides theoretical and empirical evidence of the victim-offender overlap and the need to focus on this fundamental component of the literature in order to gain a better understanding of victimisation. It then calls attention to the importance of examining interpersonal violent crimes in general, but also at more than one crime category, as most interpersonal crimes are interconnected (Hamby & Grych, 2013). This literature review covering victimology, the overlap between victims and offenders, and how this is particularly evident in crimes of interpersonal violence concludes with a discussion of the contentious issues surrounding "victim-blaming" and "victim-precipitation".

The second main component of this chapter explores a risk perspective. First, it provides an overview of the literature on risk in general and more specifically in criminology. Even though controversial, in an era of the "risk society", adopting a risk perspective seems appropriate to advance our understanding of crime victimisation, as it eschews the notion of victim-blaming. This section then presents the main intra-individual risk factors associated with victimisation: low self-control, antisocial behaviours, anger/aggression, low self-esteem, substance abuse, and personality disorders. This is an important part of the literature review, as it highlights the very small

number of studies that focus on intra-personal features associated with risk of victimisation.

The third section of the literature review calls attention to psychological criminology and canvasses key understandings about the main psychological variables and their importance in understanding any criminal event. The most recurrent psychological explanations for violent offending are: the need of power/control, anger/revenge, asserting self-esteem, sadism/trill-seeking/impulsivity, and financial gain. The section then provides a discussion on the imperative of psychological characteristics to understand behaviours and more specifically victimisation. This part of the literature is important to increase our knowledge about psychological aspects which in turn may help to explain individual diversity and provide a better understanding of human behaviours.

The final component of the literature review explores the use of typologies in general and within the discipline of criminology in particular. Despite recognised limitations and criticisms, there is a need to acknowledge their utility and well-established use within the social sciences. This section provides an overview of the early victim typologies and highlights their controversial nature and lack of empirical foundation. Then, attention is focused on the main psychological typologies as applied to the behaviours of offenders. This section is crucial for the development of a victim typology, as it highlights the need to turn to offender psychological typologies in order to improve our understanding of crime victims.

Focusing on Victims of Crime

In this first major section of the literature review, there is a brief overview tracing the historical emergence of the study of crime victims and the underpinnings of the sub-discipline of victimology. The next part unpacks the observation that there is concordance between those labelled as victims and those designated as offenders. The section delves into the theoretical and empirical literature to demonstrate the parallels in the social and dispositional features of both groups. It then provides the rationale for focusing on interpersonal violence which represents the crime context where the overlap is particularly evident. The final part includes a detailed discussion of the contentious issues

surrounding "victim-blaming" and the notion often associated with it, "victim-precipitation".

Overview of the Study of Victims

The concept of victim has always existed but its meaning has changed over the centuries. In the past, the word "victim" was used to describe people or animals who were destined to be sacrificed (Burgess & Regehr, 2010; Karmen, 2013). From a contemporary point of view, a victim is someone who suffers "injuries, losses or hardships for any reasons" (Karmen, 2013, p. 2). It includes, among others, victims of accidents, disease, or natural disasters. This research is concerned with a type of victim known as "crime victims" (Karmen, 2013, p. 2), that is, those who are harmed or affected by an illegal act (Karmen, 2013).

In the history of the subdiscipline of victimology, three distinct eras are described: the "Golden Age", the "Dark Age", and the "Age of the Re-emergence of the Victim" (Jerin & Moriarty, 1998; Karmen, 2013; Schafer, 1977). The Golden Age or "victim justice system" was a period when "the individual made the law, and … was the victim, the prosecutor, and the judge" (Shichor & Tibbets, 2002, p. 3). The victim provided evidence, impetus, and financial means for the detection and prosecution of crime (Kearon & Godfrey, 2007). The victims, even though they were presumed to be innocent and passive (Shichor & Tibbets, 2002), dealt directly with the offenders because there were no authorities to enforce the law (Doerner & Lab, 2015; Jerin & Moriarty, 1998; Schafer, 1977). There was a basic system of retribution in which "the offender would suffer in proportion to the degree of harm caused by his or her actions" and restitution where the offender had to make "payment in an amount sufficient to render the victim whole again" (Doerner & Lab, 2015, p. 2). In its simplest terms, the principle of "an eye for an eye" epitomised this timeframe.

In the subsequent Dark Age period, described as a "criminal-oriented justice system", offences were not considered as being perpetrated against the victims or their relatives but against the law of the King or State (Schafer, 1977; Shichor & Tibbets, 2002). The focus was not on victim rights and restoration but rather on offender rights and punishments (Shichor & Tibbets, 2002). Reasons for such changes included the emergence of local governments, the beginning of urbanisation, the industrial revolution, and the rise of the Roman Catholic Church (Schafer, 1977). During this period, it was

suggested that the victim was little more than a piece of evidence who was largely not considered in the decision-making process (Doerner & Lab, 2015; Jerin & Moriarty, 1998; Schafer, 1977). Crime victims were for "the most part invisible" not only to "policymakers, but also to criminal justice agencies and practitioners, the media, the general public and … most criminologists" (Dignan, 2005, p. 14). The criminal justice system became the replacement of a victim justice system, where time and energy was spent on trying to control criminals (Doener & Lab, 2015; Mythen, 2007).

It was in the 1940s that interest in victims returned and attracted more scholarly attention (Doerner & Lab, 2015). Victims of crime started to become the focus of some pioneering work, such as that of von Hentig (1948) and Mendelsohn (1956), in order to gain a better understanding of the genesis of the criminal act. Victims of crime were "taken seriously as subjects of study within criminology", and victimology was founded (Williams, 2005, p. 493). In the 1970s and within this period of "Re-emergence of the Victims", researchers and social organisations began to pay more attention to victims, their plight, and on how they were viewed (Kearon & Godfrey, 2007; Spalek, 2006). The growth and refinement of the national crime and victimisation surveys, such as the Crime and Safety Surveys conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), alongside "the expansion of victim support networks" and victims' movement, allowed the victim to move "from the margins to the centre of debates about crime and violence" (Mythen, 2007, p. 465). This phase of re-emergence continues into the contemporary period with greater inclusion of victims in criminal justice processes, considerable expansion of a multitude of support services for victims including compensation schemes, paralleled by a growing awareness and recognition of more types of victimisation, such as that occurring in the private sphere including domestic violence (Kearon & Godfrey, 2007).

However, the recognition afforded to victims has, according to some, tended to shift direction perhaps too far in favour of victims (Spalek, 2006). There is now the notion of the "ideal victim" or the "sanctity" of the victim which has pre-eminence in shaping public, media, and governmental attitudes (Kearon & Godfrey, 2007), creating "norms around which victim behaviour and emotion is managed and morally judged" (Spalek, 2006, p. 15). Victims are described as "innocent", while an offender is "evil, threatening, and a stranger" (Heber, 2014, p. 410). Thus, while there is no agreement within the discipline of victimology, it is acknowledged that there is a contestation now around the

role of victims and whether the "re-emergence" phase has morphed into a "deification" phase. With more and more emphasis on national and international victimisation surveys, the image of innocent victims is starting to be contested by victimologists and to an extent by victims themselves (Kearon & Godfrey, 2007). A commitment to strive for "objectivity rather than to be reflexively 'pro-victim'" is becoming most appropriate "when carrying out research" on crime victims (Karmen, 2010, p. 34).

The Overlap Between Victimisation and Offending

The correlation known as victim-offender overlap is one of the most consistent empirical findings in the criminological literature (Berg & Felson, 2016; Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Lauritsen & Laub, 2007; Lauritsen, Sampson, & Laub, 1991; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017). However, until recently, the field of criminology "has tended to concentrate on the patterning of offending (offenders only) or the patterning and predictors of victimisation (victims only)" and tended to ignore the apparent overlap between victims and offenders (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012, p. 17). The victim-offender overlap is starting to occupy a major area of research in criminology and is a fundamental component of the literature, as it can contribute to a fuller understanding of victimisation.

Von Hentig (1948) made the most significant impact by introducing the notion of "doer-sufferer interaction". The pioneer proposed to take the victim as "one of the determinants" in a crime event where he noted a "nefarious symbiosis" existed between victim and offender or "doer and sufferer" (von Hentig, 1948, p. 1). As stated by von Hentig (1948, pp. 383-384):

> The relationships between perpetrator and victim are much more intricate that the rough distinctions of criminal law. Here are two human beings. As soon as they draw near to one another male or female, young or old, rich or poor, ugly or attractive – a wide range of interactions, repulsions as well as attractions, is set in motion. What the law does is to watch the one who acts and the one who is acted upon. By this external criterion a subject and object, a perpetrator and a victim are distinguished. In sociological and psychological quality the situation may be completely different, it may happen that the two distinct categories merge. There are cases in which they are reversed and in the long chain of causative forces the victim assumes the role of determinant.

Von Hentig criticised the static unidimensional view of the offender to explain crime; for him, crime occurs between two persons, a perpetrator and a victim who interact together, where both can bring equal weight to the mechanics of the crime.

Another key contributor to the genesis of the victim-offender relationship was Mendelsohn (1963) in his paper *The Origin of the Doctrine of Victimology*. While working on cases and interviews with victims and witnesses, Mendelsohn (1974) explored the situational factors that led to victimisation and discovered that usually there were pre-existing interpersonal relationships between offenders and their victims. Mendelsohn (1974) claimed that victims should be allocated some responsibility for putting themselves at risk, and in some cases, victims were "more guilty than offenders" in cases where the victim "provokes or instigates the causal act" (Doerner & Lab, 2015, p. 9). Mendelsohn's (1974) thinking was influential in creating the conceptual climate where victims began to share culpability for their own victimisation.

Merging the work of von Hentig (1948) and Mendelsohn (1974), Schafer (1977) produced his seminal book, *The Victim and His Criminal: A Study in Functional Responsibility,* which became a milestone in the development of the subdiscipline of victimology. Also interested in the victim-offender relationship, the key concept that guided Schafer's thinking was the notion of functional responsibility (Schafer, 1977). According to Schafer (1977, p. 45), functional responsibility refers to the idea of "who is responsible for what and to what extent". His work was significant because it comprised "an independent study of the relationships and interactions between offender and victim, before, during, and after the crime" (van Dijk, 1999, p. 2). A key difference, however, between the approach by Schafer and that of von Hentig was that the latter used a lens based on vulnerability whereas the former focused on the degree of responsibility (van Dijk, 1999).

The early observations made by von Hentig (1948, pp. 383-384) that "the relationships between the perpetrator and the victim are much more intricate" and that "it may happen that the two distinct categories merge" have since been supported by many research studies examining a number of offences ranging from theft to homicide (Berg et al., 2012; Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Lauritsen & Laub, 2007; Lauritsen, Sampson, & Laub, 1991; Marsh, 2011; Muftic & Hunt, 2012; Posick, 2013, 2017; Schafer, 1977; Singer, 1981; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017; Tillyer & Wright, 2014; Wolfgang, 1958). For example, after reviewing the literature concerning the relationship between victimisation and offending, Jennings, Piquero, and Reingle (2012) identified 31 studies, which supported the overlap, and only six additional studies with mixed or

limited support. There is recognition of a "consistent relationship between victim and offender as early as the middle of the 20th century", and the majority of the contemporary literature "indicates a widespread support" for the victim-offender overlap (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012, p. 22).

Theoretical Concordance

Until now two general theories (the routine activity/lifestyle and the self-control theory) point toward the observation that offending and victimisation can develop from the same processes. The most common theoretical accounts for the victim-offender overlap are lifestyle-exposure theory (Hindelang, Gottfredson, & Garofalo, 1978) and routine activity theory (Cohen & Felson, 1979), as they "emphasise how the context or situation influences vulnerability to crime" (Koo, Chitwood, & Sanchez, 2008, p. 1107). For the last four decades, these two theories have dominated the study of criminal victimisation and are often used interchangeably as "lifestyle/routine activity framework" (Pratt & Turanovic, 2016; Wilcox et al., 2014). Both theories have core propositions in common such as explaining victimisation in term of the convergence in time and space between a motivated offender, a vulnerable victim, and the absence of a capable guardian (Felson, 2002; Posick, 2012; Pratt & Turanovic, 2016), known as the "Crime Triangle" (Cohen & Felson, 1979). The lifestyle/routine activity framework has been used to describe a wide variety of forms of victimisation and offending empirically (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Hindelang, Gottfredson, & Garofalo, 1978; Holtfreter, Reisig, & Pratt, 2008; Turanovic & Pratt, 2014).

The lifestyle-routine activity theory is traditionally applied to property crime, but a review of the literature suggests that it could be used to account for interpersonal victimisation as well (Clodfelter et al., 2010; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 1999; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990). The lifestyle/routine activity framework posits that increased exposure to potential offenders and/or reduced guardianship will enhance the risk of violent victimisation (Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990). For example, female students or substance users possess higher risk of victimisation as they are more likely to be in proximity to motivated offenders with no personal guardianship (Clodfelter et al., 2010, p. 456). In general, any lifestyle and routine activities that involve "recreational and social pursuit of fun" such as binge drinking, drug use, and partying have been described as increasing risk of victimisation (Jensen & Brownfield, 1986; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990; Schreck,

Stewart, & Osgood, 2008). For example, non-violent yet illegal activities such as drug dealing and drug consumption can result in elevated victimogenic potential (Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990).

After approximately two decades of research, another theory, the self-control theory or General Theory of Crime (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), has become well-established theoretically to explain both delinquency/offending and victimisation (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Ren et al., 2017; Schreck, 1999; Turanovic & Pratt, 2014). The self-control theory implies that behaviours are motivated by their inherent benefits and costs (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). In other words, the concept of low self-control is such that "people who lack self-control will act impulsively to address immediate concerns with little attention to the future costs of their actions" (Posick, 2012, p. 60). The self-control theory or General Theory of Crime was initially proposed to explain criminal and analogous non-criminal acts (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Low self-control has been described as the manifestation of "impulsivity, a preference for simple tasks and physical activity, risk-seeking, self-centeredness, and volatile temper" (Ren et al., 2017).

Drawing upon the well-established concordance between victims and offenders, Schreck (1999) demonstrated the link between low self-control and victimisation. Individuals with high self-control are more likely to see the consequences of their actions and, therefore, more likely to refrain from engaging in risky behaviours (Schreck, 1999). This is how low self-control is linked with vulnerability to crime and victimisation. For example, individuals with low self-control are more likely to use drugs or alcohol, which might render them less responsive and impaired, thus, more likely to be assaulted or sexually abused (Schreck, 1999).

In recent literature, the pairing of lifestyle/routine activity theory with self-control theory has "resulted in better understanding of both the individual and situational contexts associated with victimization experiences" (Ren et al., 2017, p. 695). According to Turanovic, Reisig, and Pratt (2015, p. 185), the predominance of research evidence gives substance to a "marriage of lifestyle and self-control theories [which] allows for a comprehensive study of victimization". It is the behaviours that people with low self-control are likely to engage in, such as taking drugs or stealing, that put them in the proximity of offenders and place them at higher risk of victimisation (Shreck, 1999).

Thus, it seems that self-control theory and lifestyle/routine activity theory combined are essential in gaining a better understanding of criminal victimisation.

Conversely, there is a need to acknowledge that many other foundational theories of crime do not have any clear implications for victimisation such as Robert Merton's strain theory (Merton, 1938), differential association theory (Sutherland, 1947), or cultural deviance theory (Sellin, 1938), as they offer theoretical constructs that are more relevant for explaining crime than victimisation. For example, the Mertonian strain theory proposes that offender behaviours and criminality are the results of an attempt to achieve the American dream implying that victims and offenders differ, as offenders will be targeting wealthy individuals and therefore are expected to belong to a lower-class status. Similarly, differential association theory posits that criminality is acquired through contact with deviant others who are likely to teach one how to offend. Because there is no way of learning vulnerability to victimisation this theory is associated with offending and not victimisation (Schreck, Stewart, & Osgood, 2008). Other theories, such as Agnew's (2002) general strain theory, finesse the issue by making victimisation part of a causal link ultimately leading to crime, while what causes victimisation is left unexplored. Finally, some theories suggest a clear victim/offender dichotomy such as feminist theories who do not treat women (victims) or men (offenders) as homogeneous groups but rather recognise that gender privilege varies across different groups of women and men. It seems that the lack of insights about the victim role in criminal events calls into question the value of a number of "theories of crime" (Schreck, Stewart, & Osgood, 2008).

Empirical Concordance

The victim-offender overlap has been observed and recognised at the social, situational, and demographic level. From a social level, ecological proximity to violence is an important variable that explains the relationship between offending and victimisation (Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990). It seems that the correlation between offending and victimisation is a "function of the areas in which victims and offenders live" (Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990, p. 114). It is in disadvantaged neighbourhoods or low-income areas that an overlap between offending and victimisation is more likely to be observed (Berg & Loeber, 2011; Daday et al., 2005; Harding, 2010; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990).

From a situational level, it appears that the risk of offending or suffering violent victimisation is differentially distributed across social variables. Variables such as level

of income earned and occupation have been described as highly correlated with offending and victimisation (Thornberry & Farnworth, 1982; Tittle & Meier, 1990, 1991). For example, in Australia, unemployed people, or those whose most common source of income is welfare or government benefit, are more likely to have committed an offence or been victimised (24% of male and 16% of female) than employed people (12% of male and 6% of female) (Australian Institute of Criminology [AIC], 2011, 2016). Other variables, such as job instability and level of education, have also been described as robust correlates of offending and victimisation (Sampson & Lauritsen, 1994; Tittle & Meier, 1990, 1991).

Another factor that emphasises the victim-offender overlap is the likelihood for both groups to possess a prior criminal history (Jennings, Piqueiro, & Reingle, 2012; Muftic & Hunt, 2012). This has been acknowledged since Wolfgang's study, in 1958 in Philadelphia, in which it was shown that victims of homicide were likely to have a criminal record themselves. A more recent American study showed that 57% of offenders and 50% of homicide victims had prior arrests (Broidy et al., 2006). Moreover, in one comparison of homicide victims and non-victims, the former were 4 to 10 times more likely to have been arrested for property crime, violent crime, or drug related crime than non-victims (Dobrin, 2001).

A further characteristic to suggest that there is less situational distance between victims and offenders than is assumed is the use of drugs and alcohol. This feature has been known for some time where the effect of licit and illicit drugs can increase risk taking, provocation, disinhibition control, and exacerbate anger and aggressive behaviours (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990). One study conducted on 4950 victims of homicide in Los Angeles, between 1970 and 1979, found that 46% of the victims had consumed alcohol and 30% were intoxicated (Goodman et al., 1986). In Australia, 62% of persons who experienced physical assault believed that alcohol or other substances contributed to their victimisation (ABS, 2016).

An additional marker of the homogeneity between perpetrators and victims as groups is that they share the same demographic characteristics such as gender, age, social status, and race (Burgess & Roberts, 2010; Muftic & Hunt, 2012; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990). Contrary to the image of the "ideal victim" portrayed by Christie (1986) or the "pure victim" described by Kearon and Godfrey (2007), yet in accordance with national

crime surveys, a typical victim is a young male, who is unmarried (Hindeland, Gottfredson, & Garofalo, 1978; Lauritsen, Sampson, & Laub, 1991; Lauritsen & Laub, 2007; Posick, 2012). This description concurs with that of the typical offender (Lauritsen & Laub, 2007; Lauritsen, Sampson, & Laub, 1991; Myrstol & Chermack, 2006; Posick, 2012).

The demographic concordance between victim and offender is observed in Australia as elsewhere. Regarding violent crime, males are more likely to offend as well as be victimised even when controlling for self-control (Schreck, 1999) or family and peer contexts (Schreck & Fisher, 2004). However, it should be noted that these patterns vary across crime types with men being more likely than women to be victims of homicide (64%), attempted murder (60%), and assault (58%), while females are more likely to be victims of sexual assault (82%), kidnapping (57%), and domestic violence (65%) (ABS, 2016). Similarly, individuals aged between 15 and 24, or "younger individuals", are more likely to have committed, or to have been a victim of violent crime (ABS, 2016; AIC, 2016) even after controlling for self-control, lifestyles, and offending history (Stewart, Elifson, & Sterk, 2004). After age 25, the risk of offending and victimisation declines (ABS, 2016; AIC, 2016). The elderly of both sexes are among the least likely to be victims of violent crime (ABS, 2016). Regarding race, minorities are more likely to be overrepresented as offenders and victims (ABS, 2016; Mukkerjee, 1999). In Australia, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders are over-represented in both crime victimisation and imprisonment rates even though they are less likely to formally report crime (ABS, 2010; Fitzgerald & Weatherburn, 2001). Finally, regarding marital status, unmarried individuals or those who are "single" are more likely to commit a crime or be victimised than married individuals (Johnson, 2004). Thus, the typical Australian victim and offender, is a young, single, Indigenous male.

High probability of suffering mental health problems is another point of intersection between victims and offenders (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012). A number of studies have outlined that individuals who suffer from mental disorders are more likely to commit violent offences (Hiday, 2006; Hiday et al., 2001; Link & Stueve, 1995) and be victimised (Hiday et al., 1999; Hiday et al., 2001; Silver, 2002; Silver et al., 2005). For instance, in a study conducted by Silver and colleagues (2005, p. 2015), it was found that "people with anxiety disorders experienced more sexual assaults, and people with schizophreniform disorders experienced more threatened and completed physical

assaults". In another study conducted by Hiday et al. (2001, p. 567), on a sample of 331 mentally ill patients, the results indicated that "victimization was significantly related to being violent" with about half of their sample being arrested, involved in a physical fight, or used a weapon to threaten others within a period of four months prior to the study.

There has also been empirical concordance for lifestyle/routine activity theory and self-control theory in a number of interpersonal violent crimes: stalking (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2000), sexual harassment (Clodfelter et al., 2010), and street robbery (Groff, 2007), among others. In a study conducted on 2233 college women, Franklin and colleagues (2011, p. 2), pointed to the fact that "drug sales behaviour" and "extensive time spent on campus and time spent partying" increase risk of sexual assault victimisation. In line with the theoretical expectation, it seems to be the result of "exposure (e.g., time spent away from home) and the potential for alcohol consumption, sexual miscommunication, and delayed danger cue recognition" (Franklin et al., 2011, p. 12). In another study conducted by Turanovic, Reisig, and Pratt (2015), low self-control and risky lifestyles (e.g. involvement in various forms of offending and substance abuse), were significant predictors of intimate partner violence and sexual assault victimisation. Thus, there is empirical evidence to demonstrate that low self-control and risky lifestyle are essential to the study of criminal victimisation.

While there is well-established empirical support for the victim-offender overlap at the social, situational, and demographic level, it is neither exhaustive nor deterministic. For example, in a study conducted on 1948 respondents from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent to Adult Health, the results demonstrated that violent offending and victimisation affect adolescent social relationships in distinct ways (Turanovic & Young, 2016). This research underscores the fact that there can be different processes at work, and therefore there is a need to be cautious when blurring the line between victimisation and offending. Focusing too closely on their shared similarities can "mask a key distinction between the two" as both can affect the "nature and quality of interpersonal interactions in unique ways" (Turanovic & Young, 2016, p. 488), and of course, as has been raised elsewhere, it is contingent on the nature of the victimisation.

Victims of Interpersonal Violence

It is within crimes of interpersonal violence that the concordance between victims and offenders is most apparent (Miers, 1989), because of the relationships that underpin these offences, almost by definition. Interpersonal violence is the "intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual", against "another person, or against a group or community, that either results in, or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation" (Krug et al., 2002, p. 5). It can be a premeditated or spontaneous act (Hollin, 2016) and can be inflicted toward a family member, a partner, or within the broader community (Krug et al., 2002; Hollin, 2016). It includes child maltreatment, intimate partner violence, stalking, sexual violence, youth violence, and elderly abuse and takes places in the home, on the streets, or other public settings, such as workplaces or schools (Krug et al., 2002). Interpersonal violence is a global social and health problem (Collins, 2008; Krug et al., 2002) that affects millions of people every year around the world (Krug et al., 2002). For example, in Australia, data on personal safety found that many men and women experience at least one encounter with interpersonal violence in their lifetimes (Phillips & Vandenbroek, 2014). The ABS (2012) survey estimated that in 2012, 49% of men and 41% of women, aged 18 years and over had experienced some form of interpersonal violence since the age of 15.

Beyond the burden of the economic cost, interpersonal violence also has an enormous impact on the victims (Krug et al., 2002). The majority of studies have focused on the psychological consequences, as people who have been victimised have increased risk of psychiatric symptoms, such as post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, self-harm, phobias, and anxiety disorders (Briere & Elliot, 2003; Coid et al., 2003; Lau et al., 2003). For example, in a study conducted on 2000 young people in the United States, Boney-McCoy and Finkelhor (1995) found that violent victimisation was likely to be linked with post-traumatic stress disorder, sadness, and poor school functioning. Moreover, the trauma of victimisation causes many crime victims to turn to drugs and/or alcohol in the aftermath of the crime as a coping mechanism (Hook, Murray, & Seymour, 2005). The problem is circular, as substance abuse is described as a prime risk factor for victimisation (Hook, Murray, & Seymour, 2005). For example, it was found that girls who have been victimised, either sexually or physically, are twice as likely to use substances than non-victimised girls (National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse,

2003). Additionally, women who reported two or more instances of victimisation were two to four times more likely to suffer from alcohol and/or drug addiction than women who have never been victimised (Hook, Murray, & Seymour, 2005).

Interpersonal violence victimisation, as well as having well-known physical and psychological impacts, can affect an individual at different levels (Fuller, 2005b; Hanson et al., 2010). In one study conducted in Australia, Hanson and colleagues (2010, p. 1), indicated that crime victimisation impacts multiple domains including "parental skills, impaired occupational functioning, higher rates of unemployment, and problematic intimate relationships". Furthermore, interpersonal violence victimisation takes an economic toll on society, but also on the victim's financial security, through, for instance, absenteeism or the inability to re-engage at work because of impaired functioning (Fuller, 2005b).

Another point which is pivotal in the understanding of interpersonal violence involves understanding the relationship context in which violence occurs. The relationship between victim and offender in crimes of interpersonal violence is of prime importance because it will "influence individuals' perceptions of self and other, and both shape and are shaped by individuals' goals and needs" (Hamby & Grych, 2013, p. 44). Contrary to the idea that crimes are committed by strangers, in the majority of violent crimes, the victim and offender know one another in some capacity (Pesta, 2011; Pratt & Turanovic, 2016). In 2013, in Australia, 65% of all violent crimes occurred between non-strangers, and for certain types of violent crime, the percentages are even higher, with, in Australia for example, only 30% of sexual assaults being committed by strangers (AIC, 2016). Thus, victims and offenders tend to be part of the same intimate grouping which can lead to other problems such as under-reporting and a likelihood of ongoing victimisation through revictimisation or polyvictimisation.

Therefore most incidents of interpersonal violence go unreported, which render the true extent of interpersonal violence unclear (Phillips & Vandenbroek, 2014; Walby & Allen, 2004). For instance, in a study conducted in New South Wales, less than half of the individuals who experienced a domestic assault in the previous 12 months reported it to the police (Gretch & Burgess, 2011). This is due to the fact that crime victims "appear to be reluctant to report violence by current partners", as well as the fact that only 11% of victims who experience violence by an intimate partner "considered the most recent

incident to be a crime" (Phillips & Vandenbroek, 2014, p. 13). Violent victimisation perpetrated by an intimate is less likely to be perceived as a crime (26%) compared to an incident committed by a stranger (42%) (Phillips & Vandenbroek, 2014).

Interpersonal violence is also a serial and ongoing phenomenon, as there are high levels of revictimisation and polyvictimisation. Researchers have been inconsistent in their use of their terminology for recurrent victimisation. In the context of the current research project, revictimisation will refer to more than one isolated incident of victimisation of the same crime category, while polyvictimisation will refer to the co-occurrence of multiple forms of victimisation (Daigle & Fisher, 2013; Hamby & Grych, 2013). Revictimisation and polyvictimisation are important issues that have received increased attention within victimology over the last decade (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2005; Grove & Farell, 2012; Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012; Walby & Allen, 2004; Weisel, 2005). They account for a significant proportion of violent crime as 1% of people experience 59% of personal crime (Grove & Farrell, 2012). In this context, even though physical assault features high in rates of revictimisation, "domestic violence is among the most predictable crimes for which a repeat will occur" (Weisel, 2005, p. 5). It has also been demonstrated that individuals who experience violence in one domain will experience it in at least another (Finkelhor et al., 2009; Grych & Swan, 2012). Thus, a small group of individuals experiences a significant proportion of crime (Farrell, 1992).

For decades, research examining interpersonal violence has developed in "relative isolation", focusing on one crime category at a time such as intimate partner violence, sexual violence, or child abuse, while recent work seems to indicate that most forms of interpersonal violence are "inter-correlated" (Grych & Swan, 2012, p. 105). The field has failed to recognise how different forms of interpersonal violence are connected "across contexts, over the lifespan from birth to adulthood, and … in the lives of those involved in violence" (Hamby & Grych, 2013, p. 1). Existing evidence suggests that some forms of violence are more closely related than others (Hamby & Grych, 2013), as illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1

Examples of Interconnections by Forms of Victimisation (Adapted from Hamby & Grych, 2013, p. 19)

Interconnection
Well known, well-established interconnections
Exposure to intimate partner violence and child physical abuse
Exposure to intimate partner violence and teen dating victimisation
Physical intimate partner violence and stalking by intimate partner
Physical intimate partner violence and sexual violence by intimate partner
Strong but under-recognised interconnections
Exposure to intimate partner violence and psychological abuse
Exposure to intimate partner violence and sexual abuse by known adult
Any physical assault (by any perpetrator) and sexual victimisation
Weaker but still positive interconnections
Exposure to intimate partner violence and peer relational aggression
Exposure to intimate partner violence and exposure to community violence
Teen dating victimisation and exposure to community violence
Psychological intimate partner violence and physical violence by non-partner

Where adults are concerned, there are a number of established interconnections between different forms of victimisation (Hamby & Grych, 2013). First, there is a well-established interconnection between intimate partner violence, stalking, and sexual victimisation by an intimate partner (Douglas & Dutton, 2001; Krebs et al., 2011). Other relationships are less recognised but have been demonstrated, such as the exposure to domestic violence and psychological and sexual abuse by a known adult, along with exposure to domestic violence and community violence and peer relational aggression (Hamby et al., 2010). Finkelhor and colleagues (2009) demonstrated a strong association between physical assault by a known or unknown perpetrator and any sexual victimisation. Therefore, the existing literature suggests that the primary interconnections between forms of interpersonal violence exist between intimate partner violence (domestic violence), sexual assault, stalking, and physical assault.

Blame versus Precipitation

Having examined the overlap between victims and offenders in the crime category of interpersonal violence, the difficult discussion around the notion of victim blame is now canvassed. The fear of victim-blaming has been one of the biggest challenges in researching the correlates of victimisation (Franklin et al., 2011). Despite there being

concerns regarding victim-blaming dating back to Amir's (1971) controversial study, it is necessary to take into consideration that "there is a fundamental distinction between the scientific investigation of factors that correlate with vulnerability to victimisation and the normative values that suggest that victims themselves are responsible for their experiences" (Franklin et al., 2011, p. 4). Regarding the extent of recurrent victimisation, it seems important, even crucial, to acknowledge the fact that some individual characteristics can increase the risk for victimisation (Hamby & Grych, 2016). This is not victim-blaming, because it hinges on the intentionality of an action. To be responsible, an individual must freely choose the behaviour and intend it to result in the outcome that occurs (Hart, 1968; Shaver, 1985). It is important to consider that regardless of any situational or lifestyle choices that might increase risk, victims are not responsible for their misfortune. However, "blaming the victims of negative events for their own fate" is a phenomenon that has found a "substantial empirical niche in social psychology in the last four decades" (Pauwels, 2002, p. 1).

There are a number of ways victims are blamed for their misfortune. The most overt manifestations of blame appear in cases of rape where victims are described as being provocative, seductive, or "asking for it" (Bohner, Siebler, & Schmelcher, 2006; Timmer & Norman, 1984; Zur, 1994). Similarly, in domestic violence cases, women are described as being masochistic, "deserving of the abuse", and, if they had wanted to, able to have left the relationship on their own accord (Feather, 1996; Sundberg, Barbaree, & Marshall, 1991; Walker, 1979; Yollo & Bogard, 1988; Zur, 1994). Another example concerns victims of stalking, particularly those who were, at one time, an intimate partner of the stalker, who are routinely held responsible, judged, and not taken seriously (Weller, Hope, & Sheridan, 2013). This is highlighted in research demonstrating that 59% and 40% of police officers, in the United States and Australia respectively, are reluctant to invoke the available stalking legislation in cases of stalking involving ex-partners (Weller, Hope, & Sheridan, 2013; Pearce & Easteal, 1999). Despite the fact that stalking behaviours by an offender known to the victim are more common, more likely to involve violence and physical threat, and will persist for a longer duration of time, they are less likely to result in conviction (Raj, 2017; Weller, Hope, & Sheridan, 2017). The misperception is that a "man who assaults his wife may be perceived as more 'entitled' to do so due to her past transgressions, but a stranger who makes a similar attack on a woman has no just entitlement because no history exists between the two" (Sheridan et

al., 2003, p. 88). Part of debunking the concept of victim-blaming has involved criticising the myths that have often grown around victimisation.

The notion of victim-blaming became pre-eminent in the literature on crime victims with the growth in interest among criminologists and early victimologists in understanding the role of victims in promoting their own victimisation, also referred as "victim-precipitation" (Timmer & Norman, 1984). Victim-precipitation refers to "some overt, identifiable conduct or omission on the part of the victim which provokes an individual to commit a crime" (Gobert, 1977, p. 514). The term, victim-precipitation, was first coined by Wolfgang, but the concept was used by early victimologists in situations where the "criminally provocative, collusive or causal impact of the victim in the dyadic relation" was described (Rock, 2007, p. 42). This dyadic relation has been referred to as the "duet theory of crime" (von Hentig, 1948, p. 397), the "victim-offender relationship" (Wolfgang, 1957, p. 1), "penal couple" (Mendelsohn, 1963, p. 241), the "functional responsibility for crime" (Schafer, 1977), and the "situated transaction" (Luckenbill, 1977).

In his book, *Patterns in Criminal Homicid*e, Wolfgang (1958) presented an analysis of 588 cases of criminal homicide in Philadelphia between 1948 and 1952 and observed that over 26% of all cleared homicides were victim-precipitated (Wolfgang, 1958). Wolfgang recognised that in each homicide, there were at least two agents, the offender and the victim, and that they both played a role in the criminal act (Pesta, 2011; Wolfgang, 1958). He suggested that a victim-precipitated crime occurred when the "victim is a direct, positive participator in the crime" and the "first to commence the interplay of resort to physical violence" (Wolfgang, 1958, p. 252). In this way, victim behaviour can precipitate the event; therefore, it is erroneous to always view a victim as weak and passive and a perpetrator as brutal, aggressive, and overpowering. Some crime victims "contribute to their own victimisation either by inciting or provoking the criminal or by creating or fostering a situation likely to lead to the commission of the crime" (Fattah, 2000, p. 23). The major premise of victim-precipitation is that victims themselves may initiate the criminal act that ultimately leads to injury or death. While undeniably controversial, the concept of victim-precipitation inspired many empirical studies. Luckenbill (1977), in a study on the interaction between offender and victim, concluded that in about two-thirds of encounters, the victim initiated the interaction, which led to the homicide. In a study conducted by Allen (1980), victims played a role in their own

death, also called "subintentional death", by revealing poor judgement, excessive risk-taking, or self-destructive lifestyle.

Even though rape was commonly blamed on its victims long before the term "victim-precipitation" appeared, it became even more controversial after Amir Menachem's study on sexual assault (Timmer & Norman, 1984). Amir, in *Patterns in Forcible Rape* (1971), gathered information on rape incidents from Philadelphia's police records between 1958 and 1960 and found that almost one-fifth of rape cases were victim-precipitated (Amir, 1971; Curtis, 1974; Pesta, 2011). A victim-precipitated rape is described as an act in which "the victim actually, or so it was deemed, agreed to sexual relations but retracted before the actual act or did not react strongly enough when the suggestion was made by the offender" (Amir, 1971, p. 266). Some other factors, such as the consumption of alcohol, the seductive attitude of the victim, the fact that the victim was wearing revealing clothing, the use of inappropriate language, the victim's reputation, and being at the wrong place at the wrong time, were considered to be sufficient provocation for a rape scenario (Amir, 1971; Pesta, 2011). Amir suggested that victims might have an unconscious or psychological need to be sexually assaulted in the way of rebelling against accepted standards of behaviour (Amir, 1971).

As a result, the notion of victim-precipitation, particularly Amir's claims regarding rape, was highly criticised which led to a virtual cessation in the study of victim-precipitation for almost three decades (Muftic & Hunt, 2012). It was decided that victim-precipitation "had to be avoided at all scholarly cost, even truth" (Meier & Miethe, 1993, p. 460). There is, however, some empirical evidence of the existence of victim-precipitation. For example, in a study that replicated Wolfgang's study on victim-precipitated homicide, Pesta (2011) reported 18% of homicides as being victim precipitated. Additional studies on precipitated physical assault have found that approximately 14% of aggravated assault could be classified as victim-precipitated (Curtis, 1974; Meier & Miethe, 1993).

The study of victim-precipitation, focusing on the involvement of the victim only, tends to be limited and has been largely ignored in contemporary research and theorising. One might suggest that in the current era, which is more concerned with victim deification, this kind of notion seems inappropriate. Moreover, even though empirical evidence has demonstrated the existence of victim-precipitated crime, it represents less

than one-fifth of criminal victimisation. The more current usage is to adopt the notion of vulnerability or risk. Unlike precipitation, vulnerability is not directly dependent on a person's initial behaviour but, rather, reflects relatively stable longer-term characteristics and attributes of the person that effectively define a person's mental and physical strengths and weaknesses (Nettelbeck & Wilson, 2002). Distinguishing vulnerability from precipitation, in particular, offers the opportunity to describe "trigger" behaviours or characteristics which "deprive individuals of the normal ability to prevent crimes against themselves" (Sparks, 1981, p. 774), and could increase an individual's risk of victimisation. The most influential proponent of this vulnerability approach is Sparks (1982, p. 6) who noted that "some kinds of people are especially vulnerable to crime and that they may, because of certain attributes or the nature of their interaction with offenders, be especially likely to become victims". The main difference between vulnerability and precipitation resides in the fact that individuals' actions do not involve any deviation from standards of due care (Sparks, 1981).

Summary of Victimology Literature

This section of the literature review provided an overview of the role of the victim throughout history – the Golden Age, Dark Age, and the Re-emergence of the Victim – which led to the development of victimology. It is clear now that increased attention in the academic realm, media, and public discourses is placed on crime victims (Kearon & Godfrey, 2007). However, the clarity of the understanding is still clouded by the complexity of the "role" of the victim in the crime event (Schafer, 1977; Spalek, 2006).

There is evidence in the literature of a concordance between those labelled as victims and those designated as offenders (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; von Hentig, 1948). This overlap is supported theoretically and empirically. The pairing of lifestyle/routine activity theory (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Hindelang, Gottfredson, & Garofalo, 1978) and self-control theory (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), pointed to the fact that risky lifestyles as well as low self-control can increase the likelihood for an individual to commit an offence and be victimised (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Posick, 2012; Reid & Sullivan, 2012). Empirically, victims and offenders do share social, situational, and demographic characteristics (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012). However, there is still a tendency to describe crime victims as "the direct opposite of the offender in terms of characteristics and needs" (Heber, 2014, p. 410). There is a need to

focus on these two groups concurrently as a more holistic understanding of the personal characteristics that are shared by victims and offenders seems essential (Fattah, 1991; Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012).

It is within the crime context of interpersonal violence that the victim-offender overlap is the most apparent. Interpersonal violence is a leading cause of premature death and is likely to have long lasting consequences and impacts on the crime victim, therefore, it requires increased awareness. Moreover, interpersonal violent crimes are more likely to involve intimate relationships between victims and offenders which lead these crime categories to being under-reported and more likely to lead to revictimisation and polyvictimisation. This portion of the literature review provided evidence on the importance of focusing on interpersonal violence.

As canvassed at the beginning of this section, we are now said to be in a phase of the "re-emergence of the victim" and this has meant that much attention has been given to eschewing the notion that victims are to blame for the harm that befalls them. Part of the debunking of the notion of victim-blaming has involved criticising the myths that have often grown around victimisation. Those concepts of victim-precipitation and victim-blaming, which are often associated, are contentious as they directly imply that crime victims are responsible for their own victimisation. One might suggest that in the current era, which focuses more on deifying victims, these conceptualisations are inappropriate. This is why it is useful to embrace the notion of victim vulnerability or adopt the logic of risk, which is the subject of the next section.

Using a Risk Perspective

This second major portion of the literature review introduces the broader concept of risk, which has impacted on criminological discourse for the last two decades. The notion of risk is germane to addressing those controversial concepts raised in the previous section, namely victim-blaming and precipitation. While these terms are often seen as interchangeable, there are nuanced differences in meanings; thus, the term "risk" is a more apt notion to draw on here. Having briefly examined the broad notion of "risk society", this part of the literature review demonstrates the importance of risk in trying to reduce victimisation from a crime prevention perspective. In order to gain a better understanding of the reason underlying crime victimisation, a number of demographic, situational, or

societal risk factors have been associated with victimisation. However, in the context of the present study the focus centres on intra-individual characteristics or psychological factors that have been link with risk of victimisation.

Understanding Risk

One of the notions in the social sciences that has received considerable attention over the past two decades is of risk (Taylor-Gooby & Zinn, 2006). A major explanation is that uncertainty seems to permeate every aspect of social life with a major connection between risk and a broad range of social issues (Anderson & Brown, 2010; Taylor-Gooby & Zinn, 2006). Risk is ubiquitous, pervasive, diverse, and global (Kemshall, 2003). Risk is anything that increases the probability for a person to suffer harm (Kazdin et al., 1997). A myriad of risks confronts individuals every day, from voluntary risky behaviours including smoking, binge drinking, and gambling to involuntary risks that are imposed on groups or individuals, such as pollution or acid rain, to public risks such as crime.

Risk has always existed especially from natural disasters, such as earthquakes, epidemics, floods, and famines, but the nature of risk has changed with the development of industrialisation and technology with an emphasis now on how the natural world itself is at risk (Kemshall, 2003). The "new modernity", gave rise to the notion of the "risk society" (Beck, 1992) with concerns around nuclear contamination, global warming, and terrorist attacks, that can have catastrophic impacts yet cannot be statistically predicted (O'Malley, 2010). Apprehension about these new high consequences/low probability risks has led to a risk consciousness that pervades the modern world (Beck, 1992; O'Malley, 2010). Risk needs to be disciplined or controlled, but because of the global scale of risks and because risk became a core element of society, individuals are thrown back upon their own resources (Anderson & Brown, 2010; Giddens, 1999; O'Malley, 2010). Therefore, in neoliberal contexts, individuals are overborne by risk awareness and a greater fear that social institutions cannot manage the new risks.

It is clear that modernisation has heightened risk awareness through the media, but the risk concept is fluid and dynamic over time and space (Lupton, 2006; Mythen & Walklate, 2006). It is the way risk is framed and how people became concerned by risk that has changed (Mythen & Walklate, 2006). Of course, new technologies and processes increase individual and societal risks, but the same scientific and technological advances can provide the means to manage risk and reduce harmful consequences.

Individuals have differing levels of vulnerability and different degrees of risk exposure (Mythen, 2014). To make it simple, risk can be visualised as a spectrum (TenEyck & Barnes, 2017). At one end of the spectrum are individuals who are less likely to be harmed because they possess fewer risk factors and are more likely to use protective factors. At the opposite end of the spectrum are those individuals with many risk factors, increasing their probability of harm. Even though multiple risk factors have a cumulative effect, it does not make the occurrence of a detrimental event a certainty (Kazdin et al., 1997; Shader, 2001). It seems that determining risk exposure could help reduce potential harm and allow prevention programs to target their efforts in a more efficient and cost-effective manner (TenEyck & Barnes, 2017).

The concept of risk society has made significant impact as "an explanatory theory" in the domains of criminology and criminal justice "over the last two decades" (Donoghue, 2013, p. 805). It was in the early 1980s that two major reports the British "Floud Report" (Floud, 1982) and the American "Greenwood Report" (Rand Corporation, 1982), shifted the way crime was imagined and governed (O'Malley, 2006). In different ways, those reports proposed that a new focus on risk should be developed. Identifying, assessing, preventing, and managing risk became key principles in crime policy, practice, and research. Risks, of course, are social constructs but have significant practical and emotional implications for those deemed to be both at risk of harming others and at risk of being harmed (Hoyle, 2008). Therefore, the efficacy of risk assessment and management tools warrant critical attention.

Criminological concern about risk is not limited to offending, as victims start to become a key subject of risk. The management of crime victims is becoming essential in order to "correct ignorance, vulnerability and misunderstanding" (O'Malley, 2006, p. 52). The purpose is to render individuals responsible around crime to avoid victimisation. Victims or potential victims are taught how to manage their own crime risks and vulnerabilities (Hoyle, 2008). Once the nature of crime is known, there are many techniques for reducing and/or eliminating opportunities to reduce interpersonal violent crime victimisation (Vellani, 2010).

The effectiveness of risk reduction, derived from the lifestyle/routine activity, is based on the concept of the crime triangle, which identifies the three necessary elements for a crime to occur: victims, offenders, and a location (Felson & Clarke, 1998). Risk

reduction focuses on eliminating any of these elements to prevent the crime. According to Pease and Tseloni (2014, p. 9), the crime may be prevented by "changing something about the offender, something about the victim or something about the location". Consequently, focusing on crime victim risk factors has the potential of preventing crime. Gaining a better understanding of those predisposing risk factors could help to add to our knowledge regarding victims and victimisation, help theory building, develop techniques for prevention, and secondarily, might guide practical solutions for appropriate and more efficient services to victims (Goodman et al., 2005; Perez & Johnson, 2008).

Risks Factors of Victimisation

Multiple factors have been described as influencing the risk of victimisation (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2011; Crandall et al., 2004; Heise & Garcia-Moreno, 2002; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Structural characteristics are the most salient and abundant literature in predicting risk of victimisation (Berg et al., 2012; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017). This position draws on demographic, situational, and societal risk factors as being related to victimisation, such as age, poverty, peer association, low academic achievement, unemployment, and extensive criminal history (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2003, 2005; Hastings & Hamberger, 1997; Schafer, 1977; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017). However, the attention here is turned toward research on intra-individual characteristics or victim-related psychological mechanisms that increase risk of victimisation (Capaldi et al., 2012; Chen, 2009; Foa et al., 2000; Jennings et al., 2010; Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Lodewijks, 2011; Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkler, 2012; McEwan, Mullen, & Purcell, 2007; Smart et al., 2005; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017).

Self-control is one of the most researched and important predictors of criminal victimisation (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Schreck, 1999). Those with low self-control "differentially place themselves in dangerous situations and are less likely to take the precautions necessary to avoid being a victim of crime" (Turanovic & Pratt, 2014, p. 32). Therefore, individuals with lower self-control are more likely to be impulsive and gravitate toward situations where victimisation is more likely to occur (Schreck, 1999). For example, individuals with high levels of impulsivity behave differently than people with lower levels of impulsivity, and it is those behavioural differences that carry different probabilities of victimisation (Conklin, 2013).

The use of antisocial behaviours appears to be strongly associated with victimisation (Sampson & Lauritsen, 1994; Smart et al., 2005). In accordance with lifestyle/routine activity theory, it seems that those who engage in illegal or antisocial activities are at increased risk of victimisation through exposure to "antisocial peers, increased aggression toward other potentially antisocial individuals, or limited ability to defend oneself against attack due to intoxication or the effects of drug use" (Smart et al., 2005, para. 89). Victims who engage in antisocial behaviours such as physical fighting, stealing, damaging others' property, or selling drugs will enhance their personal vulnerability and highlight their attractiveness as targets of crime (Schreck, 1999; Smart et al., 2005; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017). Empirical evaluations have yielded support that high-risk behaviours and/or antisocial behaviours will increase victims' likelihood to be targeted for a number of interpersonal violent crimes (Franklin, 2011; Fox, Gover, & Kaukinen, 2009; Kerley, Xu, & Sirisunyaluck, 2008).

Aggressive behaviours and high levels of anger have also been described as increasing risk of victimisation (Ehrensaft et al., 1999; Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012; Moffitt, Robins, & Caspi, 2001; Nettelbeck & Wilson, 2002; Smart et al., 2005). For example, in a study conducted on 74 female help seeking victims of intimate partner violence, high and average levels of anger were described as increasing further risk of victimisation (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012). Similarly, in another study conducted on intimate partner violence the victim's own violent behaviour against the partner was associated with further victimisation (Capaldi et al., 2012). Additionally, studies conducted on people with intellectual disabilities or mental retardation, who are at higher risk of victimisation than those not faced with disabling conditions, concluded that "having a disability was not the main problem", but in reality, it is "how people behaved and how that behaviour might promote a reaction from an offender" that is the actual reason behind victimisation (Wilson et al., 1996, p. 1). The characteristic that stood out as the main risk factor of victimisation was the demonstration of anger (Wilson et al., 1996).

Low levels of self-esteem have been described as contributing over time to victimisation by peers (De Vore, 2002; Egan & Perry, 1998). For example, Egan and Perry (1998, p. 299), in a study conducted on 189 third-through seventh-grade students, found that behavioural vulnerabilities, such as perceived "physical weakness, manifest anxiety, [and] poor social skills", contributed to victimisation for children with low self-

regard. The authors argued that these children may contribute to their own victimisation by "failing to assert themselves during conflicts", which makes them more vulnerable targets (Egan & Perry 1998, p. 306). Low-self-esteem is often described as the result outcome of victimisation (Spalek, 2006) but has been rarely used as a risk factor except in the area of peer victimisation.

Additional research identifies substance abuse as a well-established prime risk factor for victimisation (Benson, Gohm, & Gross, 2007; Cattaneo & Goodman, 2003; Diaz, Petherick, & Turvey, 2009; Drucker, 2011; Gidycz, van Wynsberghe, & Edwards, 2008; Hastings & Hamberger, 1997; McEwan, Mullen, & Purcell, 2007; Schry, Maddox, & White, 2016; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017; Tolman & Bennett, 1990). Again, this feature has been known for some time where the effect of licit and illicit drugs can increase risk taking, provocation, disinhibition control, and exacerbate anger and aggressive behaviours (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990). The pattern of alcohol and drug abuse seems to be associated not only with interpersonal violent crime but with risk of victimisation in general (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2003; Loeber & Dishion, 1983).

Finally, personality disorders or mental health issues have been described as associated with risk of victimisation (Fazel & Grann, 2006; Sinnamon, 2017). In a study conducted by Hiday and colleagues (1999), individuals with psychiatric disorders were found to be 2.7 times more likely to be the victim of violent crime, such as assault, rape, and mugging, than the general population. In another study, people with mental illnesses were 11.8 times more likely to be victims of violent crime than the general population, with numbers as high as 15 times more likely for sexual assault and 13.1 for aggravated assault (Teplin et al., 2005). An explanation for these findings is that individuals who suffer some sort of mental illness are likely to have deviant perception, dysfunctional affect regulation, and disordered cognition, which affect their emotions and behaviours (Sinnamon, 2017). More specifically, individuals who suffer borderline personality disorders are more likely to be victims of domestic violence as borderline personality disorder is linked to low self-image, impulsivity, and anger, which increases the risk of violence against them (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012). Victims of sexual assault are likely to suffer social anxiety, linked to low assertiveness, which is described as a risk factor for sexual assault (Livingston, Testa, & van Zile-Tamsen, 2007).

There are six main intra-individual risk factors that have been linked with risk of victimisation: lack of self-control/impulsivity, antisocial behaviours, aggressive behaviours/anger, low self-esteem, substance abuse, and personality disorders/mental illness (see Figure 1). Low self-control and antisocial behaviours are directly related to the theoretical framework of lifestyle/routine activity theory and self-control theory. Substance abuse and personality disorder have already been presented as characteristics shared by victims and offenders in the section describing the victim-offender overlap. Regarding anger and low self-esteem, limited studies have focused on those underlying psychological reasons that account for victimisation. Anger seems particularly correlated with risk of intimate partner violence victimisation (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012) and victimisation of individuals with disabilities (Nettelbeck & Wilson, 2002); whereas low-self-esteem is most often associated with bullying/peer victimisation (De Vore, 2002; Egan & Perry).

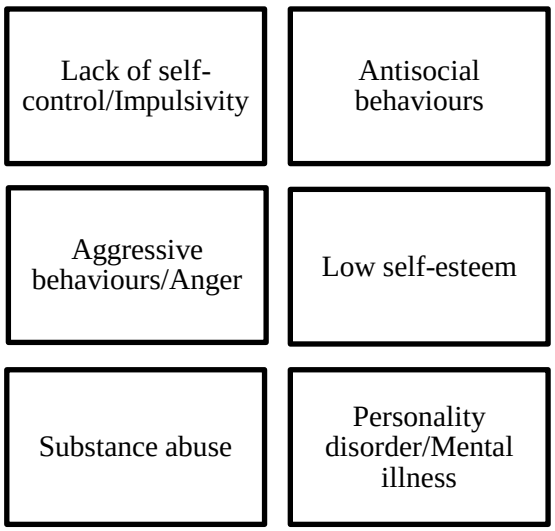

Figure 1. Extensive Literature Search Revealed Six Intra-Individual Risk Factors.

Summary of Risk Literature

As demonstrated in this section of the literature review, adopting a risk perspective is more appropriate than the controversial notion of victim-precipitation highly related to victim-blaming. Risk is anything that increases the probability for a person to suffer harm and depends on degrees of exposure (Diaz, Petherick, & Turvey, 2009). Risk is ubiquitous, pervasive, diverse, and global. Modernisation has heightened risk awareness, through the media and we now live in a "risk society" (Beck, 1992). The concept of "risk society" has made a significant impact as an explanatory theory in the domains of

criminology, which also led some scholars to investigate victims as a subject of risk. Victims or potential victims are now taught how to manage their own crime risks and vulnerabilities (Hoyle, 2008). Gaining a better understanding of those predisposing risk factors could help to add to our knowledge regarding victim and victimisation, help theory building, develop techniques for prevention, and secondarily, might guide practical solutions for appropriate and more efficient services to victims (Goodman et al., 2005; Perez & Johnson, 2008).

The literature abounds with structural characteristics that are described as salient factors in increasing risk of victimisation (Berg et al., 2012; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017). This position draws on demographic, situational, and societal risk factors as being related to victimisation, such as age, poverty, peer association, low academic achievement, unemployment, and extensive criminal history (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2003, 2005; Hastings & Hamberger, 1997; Schafer, 1977; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017). However, and often ignored in the literature on victimisation are the intra-individual characteristics that have been described as risk factors for victimisation. Individual differences in victimisation are also the result of individual characteristics (Berg & Felson, 2016). From an intra-individual perspective, there are six main risk factors that have been linked with risk of victimisation: lack of self-control/impulsivity, antisocial behaviours, aggressive behaviours/anger, low self-esteem, substance abuse, and personality disorders/mental illness. Most of these risk factors have been presented in the previous section of the literature as they are common factors used to describe the victim-offender overlap. Other characteristics, such as antisocial behaviours, anger, and self-esteem, are common research areas of criminology and a major focus of crime preventions efforts, but their importance has been neglected regarding victimisation (Finkelhor & Hashima, 2001; Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012; Smart et al., 2005). This section of the literature was of prime importance in the development of a psychological typology of crime victims, as it highlighted the paucity of literature regarding the underlying mechanisms and links between risk factors and interpersonal violent victimisation.

Understanding Psychological Factors

The third section of the literature review, inspired by psychological criminology, focuses on the individuals and their experiences to explain behaviours, and highlights a need to promote a subfield of psychological victimology. Victims and offenders are human

beings, both experiencing "the same depth and breadth of emotions and needs as all others" (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 409). There are four aspects of the individuals' functioning that need to be considered to understand behaviours: cognitive processes, emotional processes, self-regulation, and personality characteristics (Ekblom, 1994; Hamby & Grych, 2013). All of these four aspects impact on behaviours and as a result create different psychological underlying needs. The five main underlying needs that explain offenders' behaviours are: power/control, anger/revenge, asserting self-esteem, sadism/thrill-seeking/impulsivity, and financial gain. The importance of looking at psychological characteristics to understand victimisation is finally provided.

Psychological Criminology

Psychological criminology has a long history in criminology but only recently started to become fundamental, as until now, sociology has been the dominant discipline in the understanding of crime and criminals (Wortley, 2011). Sociological criminology is concerned with how fundamental structures in society contribute to crime and criminals (Andrews & Bonta, 2010; Wortley, 2011), while psychological criminology focuses on the individuals and their experiences to explain behaviours (Andrews & Bonta, 2010; Wortley, 2011). However, just because psychological criminology focuses on the individual does not mean that all causes of crime originate from the individual. It is acknowledged that both psychological and sociological criminology provide explanations of crime and criminal behaviour that are set at different levels of resolution and serve different purposes. The goal of sociological criminology is about "big-picture structural reform of the social systems" that are seen "ultimately to be responsible for producing crime" (Wortley, 2011, p. 3), while the goal of psychological criminology is to intervene directly within the individuals (Wortley, 2011). Psychological criminology focuses on the individual in order to account for the diversity and complexity of human behaviour (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). As emphasised by Andrews and Bonta (2010, p. 229), "the largest body of well-established research findings in criminology has always resided in the psychology of criminal behaviour".

In order to explain what causes individual behaviours, it is important to focus on the causal processes underlying all behaviours. Any behaviours have underlying internal explanations that can have a purpose in the immediate situation (Felson, 2002; Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2004, 2007; Walters, 1990; Wood, Gove, & Cochran, 1994).

According to psychological criminology, the set of proximal dispositions that individuals bring includes cognitive processes, emotional processes, as well as self-regulation, and personality characteristics (Ekblom, 1994; Hamby & Grych, 2013). Accordingly, behaviours are the function of how cognition, emotions, and personality facilitate the analysis of the situation.

Cognition represents anything that has a direct impact on how we understand and behave towards others such as "empathy, perception and understanding of nonverbal behaviour, social values and morals, and social problem-solving" (Hollin, 2015, p. 13). Cognitive processes are an important element in the understanding of human behaviours as differences in social cognitive skills, are revealed between violent and non-violent individuals (Bowes & McMurran, 2013). Individual differences seem to exist on how people think, perceive, and process information (Hamby & Grych, 2013). Cognitive theorists have described a number of processes that are associated with violence and offending (Hamby & Grych, 2016). Aggressive individuals are more likely to encode "ambiguous social cues as threatening, attribute hostile intent to others, and more readily access and positively evaluate aggressive behavioural responses" (Hamby & Grych, 2013, p. 36). Those cognitive processes often operate outside the conscious awareness (Hamby & Grych, 2013; Hollin, 2015). It is these nonconscious processes that are particularly relevant in gaining an understating of reactive aggression because "of their role in guiding behavior in the heat of the moment" (Hamby & Grych, 2013, p. 36).

Even though most of the work on cognitive processes has focused on offending, cognitive factors have also been linked with victimisation (Hamby & Grych, 2013). It is acknowledged that "victimization, unlike aggressive behaviour, is not intentional or desired" (Hamby & Grych, 2016, p. 111), however understanding the cognitive factors that can elevate risk of victimisation is crucial. For some individuals, the belief that violence is normative or acceptable in intimate partner violence, may lead them to tolerate aggression and be less likely to see it as a problem. Cognitive appraisals and emotions have also been described as influencing individuals' responses in peer victimisation (Egan & Perry, 1998) or sexual assault (Nurius et al., 2004). The second fundamental proximal disposition that individuals bring are emotions.

There is a need to consider how much emotions shape the meaning of a situation and drive behaviour. Aggressive behaviours are common in close relationship because

they involve high levels of emotional investment and interdependence (Finkel, 2008). For example, in cases of domestic violence, conflict, frustration, or criticisms can arouse strong emotions and lead to a desire to strike out against the partner (Hamby & Grych, 2013). Emotion is not only the way we feel but the "complex structures of thoughts and feelings that prepare one for actions" (DiGiuseppe & Tafrate, 2007, p. 59). How each emotion is expressed is a function of the individuals' capacity to regulate affect. In this context, an individual with emotional regulation problems is more likely to be angry and act aggressively in a variety of interpersonal situations (Fosco, DeBoard, & Grych, 2007; Hamby & Grych, 2013; Stuewig & McCloskey, 2005; Wilson et al., 1996).

While emotional constructs have received less attention regarding victimisation, the notion of "emotional numbing" has been described recently as increasing risk of revictimisation (Hamby & Grych, 2016). For example, in a study conducted by Kerig and colleagues (2012), previously victimised women seemed to be less annoyed and angry toward unwanted sexual advances as the result of "emotional numbing". Prior victimisation may leave individuals "vulnerable because they may recognize fewer emotional cues" around them (Hamby & Grych, 2016, p. 113).

Emotional processes, regulation, and cognition can be conceptualised as personality characteristics, because they represent continuing "patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving" (Hamby & Grych, 2013, p. 41). Personality traits are "enduring patterns of perceiving, relating to, and thinking about the environment and oneself that are exhibited in a wide range of social and personal contexts" (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013, p. 686). Traits are consistent over time and across situations and, therefore, are likely to play a significant role in causing co-occurrence of violence (Wortley, 2011). Individuals act differently in comparable situations because each individual possesses a unique set of traits. Because individuals react to situations in terms of their traits, life experiences are said to be managed by their personal traits (Hergenhahn & Olson, 2007). Trait-oriented approaches have identified a number of characteristics that are linked to violence (Steiner, Cauffman, & Duxbury, 1999; Stone, 2008). Thus, emotion, self-regulation, and personality characteristics are highly associated and have a "pervasive effects on behavior across contexts" (Hamby & Grych, 2013, p. 46).

There is now considerable evidence that there is persistence and versatility of offending (Farrington, 2008; Gudjonsson, 2016) as well as victimisation (Farrell, 1992;

Hamby & Grych, 2016). Thus, there is a need to understand what is about some individuals that causes them to commit a criminal act or be victimised. It is "the person's psychological make-up that determines how they behave" (Wortley, 2011, p. 13). There are individual differences in terms of the underlying psychological explanations that lie behind offending and victimisation and as will be outlined in the next section, these are related to personality variables (Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2004; Walters, 1990).

Underlying Psychological Explanations for Offending

In the context of interpersonal relationships, threats to essential human needs can generate powerful emotional responses of aggression (Hamby & Grych, 2013). As early as Bandura (1973), the following reasons for aggression were underlined: (1) to appropriate tangible resources the perpetrator desires (Entitlement), (2) to win approval and status reward (Social identity), (3) to bolster self-esteem and manliness (Reinforce self-esteem), and (4) to gain satisfaction from seeing the expressions of suffering inflicted on victims (Sadism). Similarly, Walters (1990), by trying to understand why individuals give different reasons for their involvement in criminal acts, hypothesised that the four primary reasons underlying criminality are: anger/rebellion, where the crime is a reflection of the criminal frustration, and an expression of rebellious attitude toward the authority or society; power/control, which represents the desire to exercise power and control over the criminal environment; excitement/pleasure, where the foundation is in the immediate gratification that a crime frequently provides to the criminal; and greed/laziness, which represents the need for achievement or mastery.

In a study conducted on young offenders that examined personality traits and psychological reasons for offending, four factors were revealed: (1) financial, which is the desire for material gain; (2) compliance, which is the need to please others; (3) excitement, which is the need for stimulation; and (4) provocation, which relies on anger and hostility and revenge (Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2004, 2007). The findings supported the view that there is a relationship between needs and primary personality traits, such as compliance, self-control, impulsivity, sensation-seeking, and anger (Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2007). For instance, financial, excitement, and provocation needs were all related to antisocial personality traits (Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2007).

In the context of aggressive and coercive acts, four underlying psychological reasons are given (Graham et al., 2013). The first reason is to gain compliance by forcing

others to comply in order to obtain some benefit or desired outcome (Felson, 2004; Graham et al., 2013). The second reason for the use of aggressive behaviour is grievance when aggression is used in order to obtain restitution or retribution (Felson, 2004; Graham et al., 2013). Grievance seems to be comparable with the anger/revenge psychological need described previously. The third reason concerns social identity, where aggression is used to make a particular impression or assert and defend social identity (Felson, 2004; Graham et al., 2013). Social identity manifest as a combination of power/control as well as a mean of restoring self-esteem. The fourth reason linked with aggressive behaviour is fun and excitement or "thrill seeking" (Felson, 2004; Graham et al., 2013).

In *Crime and Everyday Life*, Felson & Eckert (2016, p. 59), proposed three types of reasons for a violent act:

> Motive I – One person uses violence to force another person to do something he wants.
> Motive II – One person uses violence against another to restore justice, as he perceives it.
> Motive III – Assert and protect your self-image.

Although violent or predatory crimes are oriented toward gaining compliance, protecting identity and/or self-image or restoring justice are fundamental reasons underlying offending behaviours (Felson & Eckert, 2016). Many scholars, if not all, allude to five main recurrent underlying psychological needs leading to violence: power/control, anger/revenge, asserting self-esteem, sadism/thrill-seeking/impulsivity, and financial gain (see Table 2).

Table 2

Main Underlying Psychological Explanations for Violent Offending

	Psychological Explanations
Bandura (1973)	Entitlement (Power/Control) Social Identity (Power/Control; Asserting Self-Esteem) Reinforce Self-Esteem (Asserting Self-Esteem) Sadism
Walters (1990)	Anger/Rebellion (Anger/Revenge) Power/Control Excitement/Pleasure (Sadism/Thrill-Seeking/Impulsivity) Greed/Laziness (Financial)
Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson (2007)	Compliance (Power/Control) Excitement (Sadism/Thrill-Seeking/Impulsivity) Provocation (Anger/Revenge) Financial
Graham et al. (2013)	Gaining Compliance (Power/Control) Grievance (Anger/Revenge) Social Identity (Asserting Self-Esteem) Excitement (Sadism/Thrill-Seeking/Impulsivity)
Felson & Eckert (2016)	Gaining Compliance (Power/Control) Asserting and Protecting Self-Image (Asserting Self-Esteem) Restore Justice (Anger/Revenge)

When analysing the main underlying psychological reasons for violent crime, it seems that authors use different terminology to encapsulate similar terms (as illustrated in Table 2). Power/control (Walters, 1990) seems to be described as gaining compliance (Felson & Eckert, 2016; Graham et al., 2013) or entitlement (Bandura, 1973). Anger/revenge appears to be described as anger/rebellion (Walters, 1990), provocation (Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2007), restoration of justice (Felson & Eckert, 2016), and grievance (Graham et al., 2013). Asserting and protecting self-image appears in Bandura (1973) under "social identity" and "reinforce self-esteem" but also in more recent literature (Felson & Eckert, 2016) under the title, defending or asserting social identity (Graham et al., 2013). Sadism was described, as early as Bandura (1973), as an underlying reason for behaviour and was found more recently in the literature under different terminology. Excitement or "thrill seeking" seems to be comparable with sadism where aggression is used in order to satisfy the offender's own pleasure. Therefore, the notion of sadism and thrill-seeking was also described as excitement/pleasure (Walters, 1990), as well as excitement (Graham et al., 2013; Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2007). The need for financial gain (Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2007) or greed/laziness (Walters, 1990) was also described as a psychological reason underlying behaviours. Even though it

seems that different terminology is used to capture similar psychological explanations, it seems that the five-main recurrent underlying psychological needs leading to interpersonal violent crime are: power/control, anger/revenge, asserting self-esteem, and sadism/thrill-seeking/impulsivity, and financial gain.

Power/Control

Four decades ago, Bandura described the need for entitlement as a powerful emotional response of aggression. Entitlement is a need to dominate whatever the cost (Bandura, 1973). Halley and McCormick (2014) also describe a need for entitlement as a main reason behind domestic violence perpetration. The entitlement perpetrators are materially-oriented and are characterised as exploitative and possessive (Halley & McCormick, 2014). They expect a lot from their partners, such as sexual intimacy, emotional support, housework, and care of children, but they do not assume reciprocal responsibilities (Halley & McCormick, 2014).

Similarly, by trying to understand why individuals give different reasons for their involvement in criminal acts, Walters (1990) hypothesised that the desire to exercise power and control over the criminal environment was one of the underlying reasons. This point was also supported by Felson and Eckert (2016, p. 59) who proposed that individuals use violence "to force another person to do something they want" or, in other words, to gain compliance. Achieving compliance, by forcing others to comply in order to obtain some benefit or desired outcome, has also been described by others, including Felson (2004) and Graham et al. (2013).

In 1977, Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom described power and control as a main motivation for sexual assault. Power and control as an underlying reason for sexual assault was also described by Easteal and McOrmond-Plummer (2017) and Hazelwood (2009). Individuals driven by the need for power use whatever force is necessary to achieve sexual intercourse (Easteal & McOrmond-Plummer, 2017; Englander, 2003; Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977). In cases of interpersonal sexual violence, men who abuse their partners seek control (Easteal & McOrmond-Plummer, 2017). In being abusive, "they are not out of control, they establish control" (Adams, 1993, p. 68). In this context it is likely that rape will increase when the partner leaves the relationship, as rape will be used as an act of repossession (DeKeseredy, 2014).

Power and control in domestic violence has been addressed extensively in the literature (Babcock et al., 1993; Brewster, 2003; Dutton & Strachan, 1987; Ehrensaft, et al., 1999; Felson, 1996; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, McCullars, & Misra, 2012). For example, in a meta-analysis conducted by Langhinrichsen and colleagues (2012), which reviewed 74 studies to characterise the reasons that frequently emerge as perceived explanations for intimate partner violence, 75% of the studies described power and control as the main underlying reasons for intimate partner violence perpetration (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, McCullars, & Misra, 2012). Power is often used by males as a result of the patriarchal family structure where the male has power and control over his family and where battering is used as a mean to maintain and handle threats to his power (Brewster, 2003; Cassidy, 1995; Lawson, 2012). Similarly, the primary reason provided by women perpetrators is to gain control over their partner (Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2005; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2010; Swan et al., 2008). Power/control is established by assertion of dominance, control of verbal, physical, and emotional behaviours, and punishment for unwanted behaviours (Hamberger, Lohr, & Bonge, 1994; Makepeace, 1986). The literature on stalking also describes power/control as a reason for the behaviours (Brewster, 2003; Cassidy, 1995; Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2009). As summarised by Brewster (2003, p. 212):

> Power was exercised by their former partners through their bringing up positive emotions and memories of their times together. These attempts were likely made to control the victims' thoughts and desires, and to convince her to return to the relationship. When the male partners were unsuccessful in convincing their former partners to reconcile, other stalking type behaviors began with the apparent intent to terrorize, control, and/or threaten the women.

The Power and Control Wheel developed by the Domestic Abuse Intervention Project (DAIP) of Duluth, Minnesota underlie how power and control are used in intimate partner violence. The wheel frames physical, sexual, and psychological abuse as "interlocking dynamics of power that flow through and around an intimate relationship" (Pope & Ferraro, 2006, p. 1). It represents a conceptual clarification and reframing of how power and control work in abusive relationships (Pope & Ferraro, 2006). Perpetrators of domestic abuse are described as using tactics, or groups of behaviours, to control and exercise power over a partner. The tactics include: using coercion and threats; using intimidation; using emotional abuse; using isolation; minimising, denying, and blaming; using children; using male privilege; and using economic abuse (Pope & Ferraro, 2006, p. 8).

The need for power and control is a recurrent psychological feature that applies to a number of interpersonal violent crimes, such as domestic violence (Ehrensaft et al., 1999; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, McCullars, & Misra, 2012; Pope & Ferraro, 2006); stealing (Brewster, 2003; Cassidy, 1995; Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2009); sexual assault (Easteal & McOrmond-Plummer, 2017; Englander, 2003; Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977); terrorism (Long, 1990); and elderly, child, and sibling abuse (Wiehe, 1998). The need for power and control has been widely explored as a psychological underlying reason for interpersonal violent crime offending.

Anger/Revenge

Anger is part of an affective and motivational system that results from frustration and perceived injustice and drives the occurrence of aggressive and adaptive behaviours (Perline & Goldschmidt, 2004). An important differentiation has to be made, for often the terms anger and aggression are used interchangeably. Anger is an emotion, while aggression is a behavioural concept (Tucker-Ladd, 2004). Anger is indeed linked to aggression, but it is not causal of aggressive behaviours. Individuals can plot or think of behaving aggressively but most of the time, it fails because the anger has been controlled or because of a lack of courage or opportunity.

People of all backgrounds experience anger, as it is a universal emotion. As an emotion, everybody has to deal with anger at some point, but in some instances anger becomes inappropriate and leads to violent behaviour (DiGiuseppe & Tafrate, 2007). Uncontrolled anger has been described as a prime psychological feature in many violent situations, such as homicide, terrorism, war, rape, and family violence (Tucker-Ladd, 2004). Anger has different levels depending on the nature and intensity of the provocation, the predisposition of the individual, and the situational, cultural, and sociological factors. Extreme anger has been described as an underlying reason for violent crime by many (Farrington, 1986; Felson & Eckert, 2016; Gudjonsson & Sigurdsson, 2004).

Anger/revenge is described as an underlying reason for sexual violence (Easteal & McOrmond-Plummer, 2017; Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977) and intimate partner violence (Elmquist et al., 2014; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, McCullars, & Misra, 2012). Angry individuals use sexual violence in a way to punish and humiliate the victim by using sex as a weapon (Groth & Birnhaum, 1979; Holmes & Holmes, 2002). Similarly,

it has been demonstrated that the inability to regulate negative emotions is associated with perpetration of intimate partner violence (Shorey et al., 2011). In a meta-analysis conducted by Langhinrichsen and colleagues (2012), which reviewed 74 studies, retaliation (60%) and problems in regulation of negative emotions, such as anger (63%), frequently emerged as perceived explanations for intimate partner violence (Elmquist et al., 2014; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, McCullars, & Misra, 2012). Contrary to the result of the meta-analysis conducted by Langhinrichsen-Rohling and colleagues (2012), Elmquist and colleagues (2014) found that women were more likely than men to be driven by retaliation and expression of negative emotions. A reason for this could be that women are more likely to possess personality traits or suffer from personality disorders associated with emotional regulation (Elmquist et al., 2014). Indeed, female perpetrators of intimate partner violence are more likely to be borderline, histrionic, antisocial, and narcissistic (Bell & Naugle, 2008; Henning, Jones, & Holdford, 2003; Varley Thornton, Graham-Kevan, & Archer, 2010). As a result, women are more likely to perpetrate intimate partner violence when they are angry or when their needs are not met (Elmquist et al., 2014).

Anger/revenge has also been described as an underlying reason for stalking behaviours. Stalkers can express anger/revenge for a perceived rejection (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2009). The stalker can be clearly angry towards their former partner for leaving him/her and, therefore, look for revenge on the victim. Stalking is used as a way to "get back" at the victim. By inducing fear in the victim, the stalker's desire for revenge or to "even the score", is fulfilled (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2009). It is the presence of aggressive behaviours that link anger with violent crime.

Asserting Self-Esteem

In the last four decades, the link between self-esteem and certain types of offending behaviours, such as crime, delinquency, and violence, has been largely explored. However, considerable controversy remains regarding their relationship (Petherick, Sinnamon, & Jenkins, 2012; Vermeiren et al., 2004). Indeed, some argue that low self-esteem is the underlying cause of criminal behaviour (Buel, 1999; Donnellan et al., 2005; Oser, 2006; Scheff, Retzinger, & Ryan, 1989; Rosenberg, Schooler, & Schoenbach, 1989), while others imply that high, but fragile, self-esteem is the cause (Baumeister, Bushman, & Campbell, 2000; Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996; Kernis, Grannemann, & Barclay, 1989; Ostrowsky, 2010).

Low self-esteem has been argued to be a cause of violence across a wide range of crime and deviance behaviours, such as domestic violence (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, McCullars, & Misra, 2012), bullying (Egan & Perry, 1998; De Vore, 2002), terrorism (Kirschner, 1992), sibling rivalry (Wiehe, 1991), and sexual assault (Groh, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Petherick & Turvey, 2008). It has been argued that people, due to their inner self-doubt, are more likely to lash out against others and adopt deviant patterns (Kaplan, 2009). Self-esteem is enhanced or restored by the commission of aggression (Felson, 2004). As stated by Wells (1989, p. 227):

> Low self-esteem predisposes people to participate in delinquency, because they have little to lose by deviating and something to gain in terms of self-esteem. Delinquent behaviors constitute adaptative or self-protective responses to situations in which conventional activities are derogating and devaluing.

A contrary view is that it is not low self-esteem that is linked to aggression or violent behaviour but hostile aggression, which is the expression of a positive self-view threatened by others (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). It has been demonstrated that it is not whether it is high or low self-esteem that is linked to aggressive behaviours but the level of stability of one's self-esteem (DiGiuseppe & Tafrate, 2007). Indeed, people with high and stable self-esteem are especially non-aggressive (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998), while people who have high but unstable views of their self-esteem reported higher levels of anger and aggression (Kernis et al., 1993; Kernis, Grannemann, & Barclay, 1989). Therefore, high self-esteem is a heterogeneous category with both extreme violent and non-violent behaviours. Individuals with stable self-esteem are indifferent to ego threat because they love themselves regardless of what happens; therefore, hostility remains minimal (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). On the other hand, individuals with unstable self-esteem will suffer from ego threat and their sensitivity will lead to high levels of hostility (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). Those individuals have high expectations about their own competency but become aggressive and upset when someone's views about them differ to their own. Receiving negative feedback will make them revaluate their self-worth, which can be painful. The main explanation provided is that it is narcissism associated with ego threat that leads to higher levels of aggression (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). High self-esteem is thinking positively about one's self while narcissism is passionately wanting to think well about one's self (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). It is, therefore, the emotional and motivational sense of egotism in narcissism that is decisive in aggression (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998).

High but threatened self-esteem is supported by the description of individuals' behaviours in some interpersonal violent crimes. For example, a number of stalking behaviours, mostly known as public figure stalkers, are driven by the desire to establish an intimate relationship with the person they have fixed their attention on (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2009). They are lonely people seeking love, motivated by social identity. They are likely to be narcissistic, entitled individuals looking for a quality partner they believe they deserve (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2009). They are highly comparable with individuals who seek to assert and protect their self-image. Similarly, in the context of physical assault, the most salient reason for using violence is the protection of social identity (Graham et al., 2013; McMurran, Hoyte, & Jinks, 2011). It is the need to assert and protect self-esteem, either low self-esteem or high but threatened self-esteem, that links self-esteem with violent crime.

Sadism/Thrill-Seeking/Impulsivity

The literature highlights the fact that for some individuals, cruelty is pleasurable, exciting, and even, at some point, sexually arousing (Baumeister & Campbell, 1999; Buckels, Jones, & Paulhus, 2013). Some people crave cruelty, while other detest it (Buckels, Jones, & Paulhus, 2013). Sadism has been "reported so consistently across time and cultures that its origin must lie deeper in the human condition than arbitrary instances of social learning" (Paulhus & Dutton, 2016, p. 109).

The most abundant literature on sadism, as an underlying reason for behaviours, has been made on sexual offences (Easteal & McOrmond-Plummer, 2017; Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Groth & Birnhaum, 1979; Hazelwood & Burgess, 2009). This makes direct sense, as sadism is defined as sexual arousal from the suffering of others (APA, 2013). Sadistic individuals cause pain and terror to arouse themselves because they take pleasure in others' torment, distress, and suffering (Groth & Birnhaum, 1979). It is a rare occurrence but has been observed in stranger as well as intimate sexual violence (Frances & Wollert, 2012).

However, recent research demonstrated that everyday sadism exists (Buckels, Jones, & Paulhus, 2013; Paulhus & Dutton, 2016). Indeed, enjoyment of cruelty occurs in "normal" everyday people (Baumeister & Campbell, 1999). When sadism is conceived as a dimension of personality, the sadistic tendency could explain some behaviours, such as humiliating others or pleasurable reactions to violence (Buckels, Jones, & Paulhus,

2013; Paulhus & Dutton, 2016). In an analysis of the reasons behind domestic violence perpetration, Halley and McCormick (2014) described sadism. In this case, the sadistic perpetrators gain pleasure in deliberately causing pain to their partners (Burris & Leitch, 2016; Halley & McCormick, 2014). There is evidence that the sadistic impulse exists in close relationship contexts, but because of the close contact and the emotional involvement between the perpetrator and the victim, sadistic behaviours are often concealed and the victim is less likely to retaliate (Burris & Leitch, 2016).

Sadistic behaviours are described as a combination of a lack of empathy and a thrill-seeking propensity (Porter & Woodworth, 2006; Proulx & Beauregard, 2014). Excitement or thrill seeking seem to be comparable with sadism where aggression is used in order to satisfy the offender's own pleasure. The risk and challenge for committing crime seem to be highly arousing for some individuals (Wood, Gove, & Cochran, 1994); a number of criminals have a high need for excitement. In a study conducted by Ching, Daffern, and Thomas (2012), "appetitive violence" was prevalent among young people who committed violence simply for the enjoyment of being violent and inflicting suffering. Excitement has its foundation in the immediate gratification that crime frequently provides to the criminal. One of the reasons crime is attractive to offenders is the risk involved in law breaking (Wood, Gove, & Cochran, 1994).

Criminals are often high in impulsivity, sensation seeking, and risk-taking (Farrington, 1992; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Sensation and thrill-seeking is another characteristic of how impulsiveness is expressed. Obtaining thrills, usually with little to no economic gain, is what impulsive criminals are looking for (Katz, 1988). Impulsivity is described as being a stable personality trait that can lead to life-long antisocial behaviour (Moffitt, 1993). However, in the last few decades, this idea has been challenged by personality researchers and criminologists as it fails to acknowledge the possibility that traits may be expressed differently in different environments (Farrington, 1993; Mischel, 1968). While some researchers opine that sensation seeking and impulsive behaviour are more biological and psychological than environmental, others believe that it is more likely to be learned and be the result of a cognitive process (Wood et al., 1995). For example, people who use drugs and/or commit delinquent behaviour do so because of internal motivations but also societal pressure (Wood et al., 1995). Criminal behaviour is the result of sensation seeking without regards for future consequences or punishment.

Financial Gain

Financial gain includes all behaviours that serve material gain or profit for the offender (Petherick & Turvey, 2008). The pursuit of financial gain has been described as a motive behind robberies, burglaries, arsons, and kidnapping, to name a few (Petherick & Turvey, 2008; Walters, 1990). It has to be recognised that profit oriented behaviours "do not necessarily satisfy psychological or emotional needs' (Petherick & Turvey, 2008). However, some authors have linked profit-oriented behaviours with psychological and emotional needs (Walters, 1990; Kocsis, 2002). The underlying psychological need of financial gain has been linked with the fact that "the strongest social drives found in man is the need for achievement or mastery" (Walters, 1990, p. 93). Engaging in criminal activity is described as the short cut for success because often it is easier to commit crime than pursuing it via legitimate means. It has also been claimed that a secondary reason for the greed motive is to actually boost a sagging self-image (Walters, 1990). If a crime brings enough material goods to the offender the crime will deliver additional value to the individual.

Underlying Psychological Explanations for Victimisation

There are some individual characteristics that make some individuals more vulnerable to victimisation than others (Hamby & Grych, 2013). There is "ample evidence across forms of violence that victimization is not randomly distributed; for example, some children are more likely to be bullied than others … and some women are at greater risk for sexual victimisation" (Hamby & Grych, 2013, p. 32). As stated earlier, a number of demographic, situational, and societal factors (substance use, poverty, gender) have been highlighted as shared characteristics between victims and offenders, suggesting that "there may be shared etiological pathways" between victimisation and perpetration (Hamby & Grych, 2013, p. 30). Furthermore, the line between perpetration and victimisation is often blurred as most interpersonal violent crime occurs during some kind of conflict or dispute where both partners engage in aggression at some point (Berg & Felson, 2016; Hamby & Grych, 2013). Thus, factors that have been linked with offending may be relevant for understanding victimisation as well.

Several aspects of affect lability have been described as related to victimisation, such as anger/aggression (Ehrensaft et al., 2004; Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkler, 2012; Moffitt, Robins, & Caspi, 2001) and the victim's own violent behaviour against the

partner (Capaldi et al., 2012). As stated in the previous section on risk-factors associated with victimisation, there are personal characteristics that have been described as influencing the likelihood of victimisation: lack of self-control/impulsivity, antisocial behaviours, aggressive behaviours/anger, low self-esteem, substance abuse, and personality disorders/mental illness. However, in comparison to the extensive literature on the psychology of criminal behaviours, only very few studies report the existence of victim-related psychological mechanisms in explaining risk of victimisation (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkler, 2012; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017).

The intention of this present component of the literature review is not to present all of the variables that have been isolated in the wealth of psychological studies linked with victimisation. The purpose here, as stated previously, is to demonstrate that often when scholars describe psychological characteristics of victims, they are the consequences of the trauma of victimisation (e.g. post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, anxiety, self-esteem), not the cause (Briere & Elliot, 2003; Coid et al., 2003; Lau et al., 2003; National Center for Victims of Crime, 2008). There is evidence of inequality regarding victimisation which cannot be explained only by situational features or social determinants (Hamby & Grych, 2013). Criminology has learnt considerably from focusing on the psychology of criminal offenders; thus, it is now time for the discipline of victimology to answer the call to focus on the individual to gain a better understanding of victimisation.

Summary on Psychological Factors Literature

From the eras dominated by sociological criminology, it is now time to turn to a more psychological criminology in order to address question such as what is it about individuals and their experiences that make them vulnerable to crime? This section, inspired by the work of pioneers in the area of psychological criminology (Andrews & Bonta, 2010; Wortley, 2011), focuses on the individual level, such as cognitive processes, emotional processes, self-regulation, and personality characteristics, to explain behaviours.

It has been illustrated that there is a well-established literature on underlying psychological mechanism for offending. The main factors to emerge from this literature were power/control, anger/revenge, asserting self-esteem, sadism/thrill-seeking/impulsivity, and financial gain. This literature is seminal because according to

Petherick and Sinnamon (2014, p. 409), it is presupposed that victims, akin to offenders, "experience the same depth and breadth of emotions and needs as all others, and so it should be nor surprising that their behaviour serves many of the same needs".

The victimisation literature acknowledges that the risk of criminal victimisation is not randomly distributed (Farrell, 1992, 1995). Moreover, there is paucity of literature regarding psychological mechanisms to explain victimisation as opposed to the abundant literature on perpetration (Hamby & Grych, 2013). In this sense and because of the victim-offender overlap, efforts to increase our understanding of victims' psychological characteristics that could increase risk of victimisation by focusing on offenders may yield some benefits. As a consequence, and derived from the work of Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), the next section details foundational offender typologies, as they focus mainly on behavioural characteristics and personality traits to explain behaviour.

Drawing on Typologies and Types

This fourth and final section of the literature review explores the use of typologies, in general, and within the discipline of criminology, in particular, to highlight their reliance within the social sciences throughout history. The use of typologies and types is not without criticism; however, it is recognised that if well-constructed typologies permit ease of understanding of complex problems and concepts (Neuman & Wiegand, 2000). This section introduces the earliest victim typologies that were at the genesis of victimology. However, it also demonstrates the unidimensional, controversial nature, as well as the lack of empirical validity of those promising early victim typologies. The second part of this survey of the literature outlines the main psychological typologies and highlights the fact that the work of Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) had the most significant impact, inspiring others to further develop the typology (Hazelwood, 2009; Knight, 1999; Petherick & Turvey, 2008). The final element provides direction for producing psychological typologies of victims of crime by introducing the "victim motivational typology" first compiled by Petherick and Ferguson (2012) and enhanced by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), derived from the work of Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977).

Using Typologies

It is by generalising beyond the singular, the unique, and the peculiar that people achieve understanding (Clinard, Quinney, & Wildeman, 2015). However, in order to make

experiences intelligible, the infinite variety of life is reduced to constructs, categories that are comparable, which allows scientific and philosophical analysis (Bailey, 2000). In the study of human behaviours, this is accomplished by the development of typologies, "where concrete occurrences are ordered and compared by categorizing single observations into groups called classes or types" (Clinard, Quinney, & Wildeman, 2014, p. 1). A typology results from sorting individuals into types according to distinguishing traits or behaviours (Gibbons, 2002) for "without classification, there could be no advances in conceptualization, reasoning, language, data analysis or, for that matter, social science research" (Bailey, 1994, p. 1). Classification can be unidimensional, based on a single characteristic, or multidimensional, based on a number of characteristics (Doty & Glick, 1994). The terms, classification and typology, have been used interchangeably; however, typologies tend to be multidimensional and conceptual (Collier, Laporte, & Seawright, 2012; Doty & Glick, 1994), generally "produced by the intersection of two or more variables to create a set of categories or types" (Maxfield & Babbie, 2012, p. 99).

Typologies provide descriptive tools that allow scholars to present "an exhaustive and perhaps even definitive array of types" (Bailey, 1994, p. 12) that permit ease of understanding of complex social problems and concepts (Neuman & Wiegand, 2000). They aim to simplify social reality by identifying homogeneous groups (Boxall, Rosevear, & Payne, 2015; Miethe, McCorkle, & Listwan, 2006) and are parsimonious because they have the potential to reduce "thousands or even millions of individual cases" down to "a few main types" (Bailey, 2000, p. 3185), thus yielding simplicity and order.

Typologies, if well-constructed, can do more than just place a nominal label on a group or concept; they assist in comprehensiveness by highlighting the relevant dimensions of a type (Bailey, 1994; Collier, Laporte, & Seawright, 2012; Doty & Glick, 1994). A robust typology exhibits a complete set of dimensions on which the types are based in order to be as exhaustive as possible. Thus, while they are simple, on the one hand, they are also designed to provide completeness of understanding. Furthermore, they present the relationship between the types and the dimensions in order to enhance comparisons that yield ease of "appraisal of the similarities and variation in the typology" (Bailey, 1994, p. 13). Therefore, a "typology can bring order out of chaos" by transforming the "complexity of apparently eclectic congeries of numerous apparently diverse cases into a well-ordered set of a few homogeneous types clearly situated in a property space of a few important dimensions" (Bailey, 2000, p. 3188). Each typology

does not only reduce a phenomenon to systematic observation but also assists in the formulation of hypotheses and serves as a guide in scientific research (Clinard, Quinney, & Wildeman, 2014). A sound typology forms a firm foundation and provides direction for both theorising and empirical research (Bailey, 2000; Clinard, Quinney, & Wildeman, 2014; Hempel, 1952).

Regardless of the advantages that typologies offer, these advantages cannot be realised unless the typology is well-developed. For a typology to be well-constructed, it seems that the exact purpose and theoretical framework for which the typology is intended should first be made explicit, as this provides the overarching foundation for its construction (Doty & Glick, 1994; Driver, 1968; Gibbons, 2002). Secondly, each type should be sufficiently defined so that individuals can reliably be assigned to its categories (Driver, 1968). Another criteria is a reasonable number of types, as it helps with the understanding of the typology; however, an excessive number of types may mean that too many extraneous variables have been taken into account or that the types lack mutual exclusivity (Gibbons, 2002). Moreover, each type description should fit an individual given type in order to allow the population under scrutiny to fall within the typology without unclassified cases (Gibbons, 2002). Finally, typologies must be falsifiable which implies that the "predictions associated with a typology must be testable and subject to disconfirmation" (Doty & Glick, 1994, p. 234).

Although the importance of typologies in criminology is highly recognised, it has also been heavily criticised (Collier, Laporte, & Seawright, 2012). Typological thinking can be overly reductionist or essentialised. Dating back to Plato, it was acknowledged that categorisation can produce "a limited number of natural kinds (essence or types), each one forming a class" (Mayr, 2009, para. 18). Despite their power to contribute to theory development and empirical research, another key criticism of typologies is that they are fundamentally descriptive and are often viewed as "pre-theoretical" and, therefore, as failing the goal of explanation (Bailey, 1994). A fact is that there is rarely a perfect correspondence between any typology and the real world (Wrong, 1992). Typologies are also seen as problematic because of the variability of individual cases and the difficult task to match these cases to selected dimensions (Bailey, 1994). As stated previously, the terms, classification and typology, have been used interchangeably and this constitutes the grounds for the most severe criticism (Clinard, Quinney, & Wildeman, 2014; Collier, Laporte, & Seawright, 2012; Doty & Glick, 1994). Indeed, typologies are

traditionally seen as classification systems and are, therefore, considered as "atheoretical devices that are mainly useful for categorization" (Doty & Glick, 1994, p. 231). While classification systems categorise phenomena into mutually exclusive and exhaustive systems, typologies tend to identify multiple ideal types, each of which "represents a unique combination of the organizational attributes that are believed to determine the relevant outcome(s)" (Clinard, Quinney, & Wildeman, 2014; Doty & Glick, 1994, p. 232). Thus, a typology is not necessarily a classification system. Moreover, it is not expected to achieve a system that will be recognised by all criminologists. First, definitions, behaviours, and persons to be included in a typology will vary according to time and place (Clinard, Quinney, & Wildeman, 2014). Second, theory within criminology will continue to develop; therefore, typologies will have to be adjusted (Clinard, Quinney, & Wildeman, 2014). Finally, it is expected that theories, theoretical frameworks, as well as typologies, will change as the orientation of criminologists change (Clinard, Quinney, & Wildeman, 2014).

Biological typologies are rooted in biological theories, organised around features, such as genetics, evolutionary development, and body type (Helfgott, 2008). One of the earliest typology, which was biologically based, was proposed by Cesare Lombroso (1887/2005) who claimed that criminals could be classified according to evolutionary development and physical traits. Legalistic typologies are organised around violations of the criminal law and are the oldest and most frequently used classifications of crime and criminals (Clinard, Quinney, & Wildeman, 2014; Helfgott, 2008). Other typologies address sociological factors and are organised around social and culture interactions and social context (Helfgott, 2008). They classify offenders and offences based on "place of crime, relationship to victim, and the activities involved in the crime" (Helfgott, 2008, p. 102). For example, Lindesmith and Dunham (1941) devised a continuum of criminal behaviour ranging from the individualised criminal to the social criminal. For the individualised criminal, the crime is committed for diverse yet personal reasons, while the social criminal acts according to group norms in order to achieve status and recognition in a limited group (Lindesmith & Dunham, 1941). Other typologies deal with psychological factors as they seek a "rational and empirical understanding of variation in the occurrence of criminal acts" in particular "individual differences in criminal activity" (Andrews & Bonta, 2010, p. 1). As has been revealed in this short overview, the practice of developing typologies and our reliance on using them for both theorising and empirical

projects has a long history in the discipline of criminology. Some are formulated around criminals, while others centre on the victims.

Early Victim Typologies

Some scholarly attention has been devoted to classifying victims and, in particular, to understand the reasons underlying their victimisation. Those early typologies are also based on a range of factors: biological, psychological, sociological, demographic, and even psychiatric (Burgess & Roberts, 2010). Two early victimologists attempted to devise the first victim typologies. First, von Hentig (1948) worked on classifying crime victims based on their personal characteristics and likelihood of being targeted, while Mendelsohn developed a typology based on a spectrum of culpability (Meier & Miethe, 1993). It is acknowledged that, in regard to the 21st century, "some of the concepts they used were primitive" (Meier & Miethe, 1993, p. 461) and in some respects controversial; however, they will be presented as they are considered as foundational to the field of victimology.

In 1948, von Hentig developed a typology that focused on three disciplinary approaches: psychological, sociological, and biological and suggested that victim characteristics can contribute to victimisation; therefore, victims are born, not made (Wilson, 2009). Von Hentig classified crime victims into a 13-category typology where the victims were either entirely responsible, not culpable, or somewhere in the middle. Each category describes a characteristic which increases the vulnerability of an individual becoming a victim of crime. The young, the female, the old, and the "mentally defective" were seen to be physically and psychologically weaker based on biological, social, and psychological characteristics (von Hentig, 1948). The immigrants, minorities, and "dull normal" were more likely to be victimised because of their social status (von Hentig, 1948). The depressed, the acquisitive, the wanton, and the lonesome and heartbroken were deemed psychologically weaker (von Hentig, 1948). The depressed were psychologically unwell, the acquisitive were prone to manipulation because of their greed, the wanton were promiscuous and, therefore, at elevated risk, and the lonely or heartbroken were easy prey as they had inclinations towards substance abuse (von Hentig, 1948). Finally, the tormented and blocked were victims who ignored the danger of provocation and stupidity (von Hentig, 1948). Even though this typology was developed approximately 70 years ago, it had already addressed the notion of victim proneness

(Myrstol & Chermack, 2006; Walklate, 2007). However, it has to be acknowledged that a number of terms are now viewed as inappropriate.

The French-Israeli attorney, Benjamin Mendelsohn, found that usually there were pre-existing interpersonal relationships between offenders and their victims and that some victims played a role in their own victimisation (Jerin & Moriarty, 1998; Mendelsohn, 1974; Wilson, 2009). Mendelsohn (1974) developed a typology, which combined victims' levels of culpability and legal issues. It included, the completely innocent victims who do not provoke or facilitate their victimisation; the victims with minor guilt who inadvertently place themselves in a compromising situation; the victims who are as guilty as the offender, who engage in vice crimes and are hurt which includes victims of suicide; the victims more guilty than the offender who provoke or instigate the causal acts; the most guilty victims who start off as the offender and in turn are hurt; and the imaginary victims who pretend to be a victim (Mendelsohn, 1974). Mendelsohn's (1974) thinking was influential in creating the conceptual climate where victims began to share culpability for their victimisation.

Stephen Schafer in 1967, developed a more complete typology based on the degree of responsibility of crime victims (Schafer, 1977). Schafer's (1977) typology contained seven levels: the unrelated victims (entirely innocent), who are unfortunate targets of offenders; the provocative victims (shared responsibility), whose behaviour caused their offender to react; the precipitative victims (some degree of responsibility), who place themselves in dangerous situations by the way they dress, where they go, and at what time, and what they say; the biologically weak victims (not responsible) that include the young, elderly, physically, and mentally weak, who become easy targets for offenders; the socially weak victims (not responsible), such as the immigrants, minorities and those who are isolated, who become easy targets for offenders; the self-victimising victims (totally responsible), such as prostitutes, drug users, gamblers, and other people who voluntary interact in a criminal milieu; the political victims (not responsible), who oppose those in power or people who are kept in subservient social positions. This typology was also derived from the concept of responsibility and supported the idea that the role of victims should not be separated from the general crime problem.

Instead of focusing on the degree of responsibility of the victim, another typology that focused on crime situations was developed by Sellin and Wolfgang (1964). Their

"crime event theory" offered five categories (Hunter & Dantzker, 2012): primary victimisation, which involved victims being selected based on personal attributes; secondary victimisation, where the victim is an impersonal target of the offender; tertiary victimisation, which involves the public or the administration of the society as victim; the mutual victimisation, involving the victims themselves as the offenders in a mutually consensual act; and no victimisation, where there are no recognisable victims or acts of negligible significance or minor nature. This typology attempted to understand why certain people become victims based on the crime situation and the victim-offender relationship (Hunter & Dantzker, 2012).

A rather more complex typology based on the degree of the victim's participation in the offence was put forward by Fattah (1980). This typology comprises five types: the non-participating victims, who do not contribute to the offence; the latent or predisposed victims, who because of certain predispositions are more likely than others to be victims of certain types of offences; the provocative victims, who play a definite role in the etiology of the crime either by inciting or creating a situation that is likely to lead to crime; the participating victims, who play their part while a crime is being committed; and the false victims, who are not victims at all or are victims of their own actions (Fattah, 1980).

It is evident from the brief chronological summary above that there has been some effort afforded to the construction of victim typologies. It seems that each of them have been helpful in developing the field of victimology in that "scholars could note and understand that criminal victimization was not an entirely random event, and that crime victims could be identified based on some personality or demographics that they held" (Mustaine, 2010, p. 527). However, the main limitations of these typologies are that they are unidimensional and lack empirical basis. All of the developed typologies tend to address victim involvement in the criminal event by proposing a continuum of culpability for victims (Menseldohn, 1974; Schafer, 1977), focusing on the victim-offender relationship (Sellin & Wolfgang, 1964), or incorporating the degree of victim participation (Fattah, 1980). While von Hentig (1948) addressed involvement in the crime event by centering on vulnerabilities, his observation was not supported by empirical research.

More recently, in an attempt to overcome the unidimensionality of existing victim typologies, Landau and Freeman-Longo (1990) proposed a multidimensional typology of

crime victims. It included 11 dimensions: source of victimisation, legal framework, intentionality of the perpetrator, identification of the victim, victim vulnerability, victims' perception of victimisation, others' perception of victimisation, type of victimisation, severity of victimisation/harm, victim-offender relationship, and victims' contribution to the event (Landau & Freeman-Longo, 1990, p. 282). This typology, however, provides only the scaffolding, as it was created for others to further develop a victimisation profile using these 11 dimensions. Even though it is considered by the authors to be a multidimensional typology, it lacked exploration of psychological characteristics that could explain the risk of victimisation.

Psychological Typologies of Interpersonal Violent Crime

Very few typologies, including von Hentig (1948), address psychological aspects in regard to vulnerability for victimisation. However, as stated previously, von Hentig's work is now dated and controversial, and lacks empirical validation. Influenced by psychological criminology (Andrews & Bonta, 2010; Wortley, 2011) and the work of Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), it is now time to move toward general typologies that address psychological aspects, in order to gain a better understanding of the complexity of human behaviours (Andrews & Bonta, 2010).

Typologies that address psychological aspects or "psychological typologies" are organised around personality or other individual psychological features (Helfgott, 2008). From a theoretical point of view, crime is a behavioural symptom that can be the product of a range of underlying psychological conditions (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). The main purposes of typologies that address psychological aspects are to obtain a theoretical understanding but also provide insight into the management and treatment of individuals (Helfgott, 2008). It is acknowledged that victims are not offenders, but from a psychological perspective, it is expected that both will share similar characteristics (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014).

The Groth typology is the earliest and also one of the most enduring offender psychological/motivational typologies highly relied upon in the literature. It was developed by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) in order to inform an effective treatment plan for sexual offenders. It centres on the offence of sexual assault exclusively and identifies four distinct types of rapists: the power reassurance, power assertive, the anger retaliation, and the anger/excitation type. In *Men Who Rape: The Psychology of the*

Offender, rape is described as an act where both "aggression and sexuality are involved, but it is clear that sexuality becomes the means of expressing the aggressive needs and feelings that operate in the offender and underlie his assault" (Groth & Birnbaum, 1979, p. 13). Their clinical typology of rape is based on the analysis of the sexual assault accounts of 133 convicted rapist offenders and 146 victims. Statistically, offenders were more likely to be power rapists (64.9%) rather than anger rapists (35.1%) (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977). This typology relies on the assumption that identifiable themes can indicate the underlying reason behind the crime (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977, p. 1240):

> One of the most basic observations one can make about rapists is that they are not alike. Similar acts are performed for different reasons or different acts serve similar purposes. Our clinical experience with convicted offenders and with victims of reported sexual assault has shown that in all cases of forcible rape three components are present: power, anger and sexuality.

Power reassurance is associated with individuals who seek power and control in an effort to "resolve disturbing doubts" about themselves (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977, p. 1241). Power reassurance individuals are characterised as having low self-esteem, feelings of inadequacy, little or no social skills, and are described as loners (Berger, 2000; Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Robertiello & Terry, 2007). Individuals categorised as power reassurance place their victims in a helpless and controlled position in which they cannot be rejected, thereby shoring up their failing sense of worth and adequacy (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977). Power reassurance is associated with individuals who have "courtship disorder" because they lack the ability to form a normal relationship (Freund, 1990; Robertiello & Terry, 2007).

The power assertive type also has fragile self-esteem and feels inadequate (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977). However, assertive individuals use aggression to express masculinity and sense of entitlement (Berger, 2000; Robertiello & Terry, 2007). Power assertive individuals act to express their virility, mastery, and dominance (Berger, 2000; Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977). The purpose of any physical aggression is to achieve submission, as they are impulsive and opportunistic (Berger, 2000; Robertiello & Terry, 2007). The offence is a reflection of the inadequacy they experience in terms of their sense of identity and effectiveness. They are very self-centred, selfish, and do not like to be under the control of others (Berger, 2000; Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977).

The anger retaliation type is characterised by an expressed anger, rage, contempt, and hatred for others (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977). The level of force used to subdue the victim is often far in excess of what is required and is intended to hurt the victim (Berger, 2000). The aim behind their acts is to vent their rage and retaliate for perceived wrongs or rejections they have suffered in the past (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977). Anger-retaliatory individuals display a great deal of anger towards women in general because the relationships with the female in their lives are conflicted, irrational, contain extreme jealousy, and suspicion, and are likely to include physical assault (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977). This type probably uses alcohol and drugs during the assault, as substance use has been described as altering an individual's cognition, affect, and behaviours and enhances predisposition for aggression (Morgan & McAtamney, 2009). The anger-retaliatory personality is described as being explosive, spontaneous, impulsive, and acting out of anger (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977).

The anger excitation category is a rare type, where individuals display sexual aggression fuelled by erotic and destructive fantasies (Berger, 2000). Sexuality and aggression is totally merged with eroticised aggression. The anger excitation or sadistic type is characterised by individuals who find pleasure, thrills, and excitation in the suffering, humiliation, and degradation of others (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977). The aim of the attack is to punish, hurt, torture, and inflict the most physical and emotional pain possible (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977). Individuals driven by anger excitation often show high social competence (Berger, 2000). This category uses an excessive to brutal level of force, violence, and aggression in order to achieve further arousal (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Robertiello & Terry, 2007).

The foundational work of Groth (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Groth & Birnbaum, 1979) in the study of sexual offenders was the starting point for many others to pursue such work. Hazelwood (2009) was the first to modify the Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) typology in a significant way. Hazelwood (2009), based on more than 4000 rape case studies, used the four types described by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) (i.e. power reassurance, power assertive, anger retaliatory, and anger excitation). In his description of the types, as well as focusing on psychological aspects, Hazelwood described the style of attack and categorised the verbal, sexual, and physical behaviour of the offender. He also added two new types that seemed to be less frequently observed: the opportunistic and the gang rapists (Hazelwood, 2009).

The first additional type, the opportunistic type is described, as an "impulsive type" of individual who "had not anticipated committing a sexual assault because he was originally at the assault location to commit a robbery or burglary" (Hazelwood, 2009, p. 108). Contrary to the other types, the primary intention of an opportunistic offender is truly sexual. This type of individual is expected to spend a relatively short period with the victim and use a minimal level of force (Hazelwood, 2009). Opportunistic individuals are described as sexually and verbally selfish and are likely to be intoxicated during the attack (Hazelwood, 2009). The second additional type is the gang type, which is where "the victim is attacked by a group of three or more males who are operating with a pack mentality. The crime is committed in an impulsive manner" (Hazelwood, 2009, p. 109). The victim is often described as generally weak, vulnerable or "deserving" the attack (Hazelwood, 2009). Because of the group impact, individuals of the gang that have to prove something to the others will be extremely physically and sexually violent (Hazelwood, 2009).

The Hazelwood typology is widely used in criminal profiling, in order to understand the underlying psychological and behavioural features of sex offenders. However, it has to be considered that the two additional types, the opportunistic and gang types, cannot be considered as psychological and behavioural, because they are more modus operandi components and much more contextual elements in which a criminal behaviour occurs. These types were intended to explain situations in which individuals act in concert with others (gang type) or where sexual attacks are pursuant to another crime (opportunistic type) and are not relevant in regard to the general typology.

Another typology, also inspired by the Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) typology and its four types, called the Massachusetts Treatment Centre: Rape1 (MTC: R1; Knight et al., 1998) was developed. However, the MTC: R1 seemed to suffer a lack of reliability and validity; therefore, it was revised and the MTC: R3 was created (Knight et al., 1998). The MTC: R3 comprises four types: the opportunistic, the pervasive anger, the sexual gratification, and the vindictive. Each type is divided into subtypes and comprises nine in total that differentiate individuals by motivation, impulsivity, criminality, and social competence (Knight, 1999).

The opportunistic type acts impulsively and is controlled by situational and contextual factors (Knight, 1999). For instance, the offence is committed after the

commission of another crime, such as a burglary (situational factor), or in some cases after some routine occurrences, such as after encountering a woman in a bar (victim availability which represent a contextual factor). The opportunistic type can be divided in two subtypes (Types 1 and 2), which differ on the level of social competence (low and high) (Knight, 1999). The pervasively angry type is mainly driven by global anger and rage (Knight, 1999). The offence planning is usually very poor because the behaviour is very impulsive (Knight, 1999). The third category of this typology, sexual gratification, is divided into four subtypes (Knight, 1999). The first two subtypes (Types 4 and 5) are characterised as sadistic (Knight, 1999). The aim of the sadistic type is a fusion between aggression and sexual feeling, therefore sadism. The only difference between Types 4 and 5 lie in the fact that Type 5 only fantasises (the muted type) while Type 4 expresses feelings through violent attacks (the overt type) (Knight, 1999). The second two subtypes (Types 6 and 7), called non-sadistic, are characterised mainly by feelings of inadequacy (Knight, 1999). They only differ in terms of the level of social competence with Type 6 being high and Type 7 being low (Knight, 1999). The fourth category of the MTC: R3, the vindictive type (Knight, 1999), is divided into two subtypes (Types 8 and 9) based on their level of social competence, low and high respectively. They are characterised by high anger against women (misogynistic individuals) and the main purposes of their attack is to physically harm, degrade, and humiliate women (Knight, 1999). They usually act impulsively akin to the pervasively angry type. Even though this typology has been empirically derived and validated (Knight & Prentky, 1987; Knight, 1999) its clinical utility has been questioned and studies have failed to apply the typology and its nine subtypes without refinement (Barbaree et al., 1994).

There are very few known typologies that classify female sex offenders. Female underlying reasons for committing sexual offences seem different to males (Matthews, Mathews, & Speltz, 1991). Mathews, Matthews, and Speltz (1989) developed a three-type typology: teacher/lover, male coerced/ male accompanied, and predisposed. The teacher/lover type abuses victims via their power position. This type initiates the abuse with a male adolescent and seeks a loving relationship (Mathews, Matthews, & Speltz, 1989). They often do not regard their actions as harmful and use cognitive distortion and justification to minimise their crime and deny the negative impact of their behaviour (Mathews, Matthews, & Speltz, 1989). The male coerced/male accompanied type are subordinate women influenced by a male they fear (Mathews, Matthews, & Speltz, 1989).

They are likely to have low self-esteem, be emotionally dependent, socially isolated, drugs and/or alcohol abusers and have low IQ (Matthews, Mathews, & Speltz, 1991; Nathan & Ward, 2002; Syed & Williams, 1996). They are often domestic violence victims who join their male partners after being coerced to offend (Mathews, Matthews, & Speltz, 1989). Finally, the predisposed type is characterised by individuals who initiate sexual abuse, with the most common victims being their own children (Mathews, Matthews, & Speltz, 1989). The predisposed type is likely to have a history of sexual and physical abuse and possess deviant and/or violent sexual fantasies triggered by anger (Mathews, Matthews, & Speltz, 1989). This type seeks power and control and may suffer serious psychological disorders (Mathews, Matthews, & Speltz, 1989; Matthews, 1993). As an addition to this typology, Syed and Williams (1996) added an angry/impulsive type. The angry/impulsive type acts alone in an angry and impulsive manner toward an adult male victim or other female adults within an intimate relationship as a form of domestic abuse (Simons et al., 2008; Syed & Williams, 1996). Overall, even though differences seem to exist between male and female sex offenders, power/control, self-esteem, anger, and sadism seem to be recurrent psychological triggers for the behaviour.

There have been few attempts to classify offenders on the basis of their psychological and behavioural characteristics of their offense, but the work of Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) has served as a cogent starting point (Hazelwood, 2009; Knight, 1999; Petherick & Turvey, 2008). The Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom typology (1977) has demonstrated strength in classifying offenders and could be used to classify most criminal behaviours (Petherick & Turvey, 2008). Indeed, the "needs, or motives, that impel human criminal behaviors remain essentially the same for all offenders, despite behavioral expression" (Petherick & Turvey, 2008, p. 280).

Despite the fact that the Gorth, Burgess, and Holmstrom typology (1977) has been created to describe the psychological and motivational characteristics in sexual offences, this typology could be used to describe other offences, such as stalking, domestic violence, assault, or fraud, among others. For example, inspired by the work of Groth and colleagues (1977) and that of Hazelwood (2009), Mullen, Pathé, and Purcell (2009) conducted a clinical study on stalking and developed a typology of stalkers. Their sample was comprised of 145 stalkers of whom 115 were males, aged 15 to 75 years. Their typology incorporated three different axes: "(1) the stalker's predominant motivation and the developmental context for the commencement of the stalking behaviour, (2) the nature

of the stalker's original relationship with the victim, and (3) the psychiatric diagnosis" (Pinals, 2007, p. 45). They described five overlapping types: the rejected, the intimacy seeking, the incompetent, the resentful, and the predatory. The authors emphasise that the five categories were not fixed, that "the perceptions and emotions that stalkers entertain toward their targets change over time" (Raj, 2017, p. 55).

The rejected type (*n*=52) was described as a "complex mixture of desire for both reconciliation and revenge. A sense of loss could be combined with frustration, anger, jealousy, vindictiveness and sadness in ever-changing proportions" (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 1999, para. 22). The intimacy seeking type (*n*=49) was characterised by individuals who were "looking for intimacy with the object of their unwanted attention, whom they identified as their true love" (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 1999, para. 23). The goal was to establish a relationship, but several were prey to jealousy, and a number became enraged at their would-be partners' indifference to their approaches. The incompetent type (*n*=22), acknowledged that "the object of their attention did not reciprocate their affection, but they nevertheless hoped that their behaviour would lead to intimacy" (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 1999, para. 24). The resentful type (*n*=16) is characterised by individuals who act to "frighten and distress the victim" (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 1999, para. 25). The predatory type (*n*=6) was characterised by individuals who "take pleasure in the sense of power produced by stalking, and there were elements of getting to know their victim and rehearsing, in fantasy, their intended attack" (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 1999, para. 26).

This typology is a widely used guide to assist in the clinical assessment and treatment of stalkers (Raj, 2017). Authors, such as Pinals (2007, p. 46), have stated that the typology of Mullen, Pathé, and Purcell (1999) "represent[s] the most useful, comprehensive scheme available to clinicians for classifying stalking behavior", a point also shared by other scholars (Boon & Sheridan, 2001; Brewster, 2003). Also known as the Stalking Risk Profile (SRP), the typology is used as a clinical assessment tool, which "aids in the identification of factors that directly contribute to the stalking behaviour, helps focus clinical interventions, and assists in the evaluation of change in risk over time" (Mackenzie et al., 2009, p. 5).

Also inspired by the work of Groth and colleagues (1977) and that of Hazelwood (2009), Petherick and Turvey (2008) advanced their analysis by applying their typology

to any violent crime offences. Their developed "behavioural-motivational typology" comprised five types: the four types described by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) and an additional type called material or profit oriented. The descriptions of the power reassurance, power assertive, anger retaliatory, and sadistic types are very similar to the types described by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) and Hazelwood (2009). The main difference with the previous typologies is that this typology has been constructed to classify behaviours in context and in relationship with the crime scene behaviours. Therefore, it includes expected verbal, sexual, physical behaviours as well as Modus Operandi and signature behaviours that are likely to be observed within crime scenes and links potential mental illnesses with each type (Petherick & Turvey, 2008).

They also described a fifth type, labelled profit or material gain. According to Petherick and Turvey (2008), profit oriented behaviours include all behaviours that serve material and personal gain. The offence is generally very short, well planned or opportunistic, profit-oriented, perpetrated towards unknown victims through the use of moderate force (Petherick & Turvey, 2008). Profit-motivated behaviours do not necessarily satisfy psychological or emotional needs unless the material gain is associated with a psychological need or compulsion (Petherick & Turvey, 2008).

In summary, the above presents an overview of the main typologies based on psychological aspects in order to assist in understanding the forces behind the offence of rape, stalking, and interpersonal violent crime in general. While the typologies related to the behaviours of offenders, it is important to keep in mind that they are a representation of general psychological dynamics, therefore, could be applied as descriptors to more common everyday behaviours as well as to victims (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014).

Toward a Psychological Victim Typology

It seems possible to classify victim behavioural characteristics and personality traits in the same way that psychological typologies classify offenders, according to their needs and wants (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012). This is the purpose of the "victim motivational typology" developed by Petherick and Ferguson (2012) and further expanded by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014). The victim motivational typology has been created to understand the emotional and psychological milieu of victimisation and capture the vast majority, if not all, of the types of needs and wants that victims experience. This typology is based on the work of Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977), Groth and Birnbaum

(1979), and Hazelwood (2009), with some modification in order to be applicable to crime victims. It is a reflection of the offender typologies (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Hazelwood, 2009; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2008), which are applied to the behaviours of victims.

Before continuing with the description of this typology, it is important to take into consideration that, as with the offender typologies, the following types are not exclusive as a victim can exhibit characteristics of more than one type (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Also it is possible for a victim to adapt or change, as they may "start as one type" but "move between types as dictated by their experiences and their willingness (or ability) to learn from past mistakes that placed them in risky situations" (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 414). The victim typology developed by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) comprises seven different victim types: reassurance-oriented, assertive-oriented, anger-oriented, pervasive-angry, excitation-oriented, materially-oriented, and self-preservation-oriented.

The reassurance-oriented victims strive to restore or reinforce their level of self-esteem or self-worth through different behaviours (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). They are prone to a lack of self-confidence, feelings of inadequacy, and experience difficulties in social interactions (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). They can, for example, decide to stay in an abusive relationship because they may feel gratitude toward their abuser (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). In regard to this point, Buel (1999, p. 21), states:

> A victim who is overweight or has mental health, medical, or other serious problems often appreciates that the abuser professes his love, despite the victim's perceived faults. Many batterers tell a victim, 'You are so lucky I put up with you; certainly nobody else would,' fueling the victim's low self-esteem and reinforcing her belief that she deserves no better than an abusive partner.

The reassurance-oriented victim may also be victimised because they have the feeling that it is somehow what they deserve and because of that have been subjected or will be subjected to repeated victimisation. For these victims, the psychological and physical cost of the abuse is less important than the emotional cost of being alone (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Reassurance-oriented victims are often party to victim-precipitated offences as a result of the combination of their poor social skills, need for approval from others, and their inherent passive and introspective nature (Petherick &

Sinnamon, 2014). These kinds of victims have such a low level of self-esteem and are accepting of, or have a distorted view of violence that, even when they escape an abusive relationship, they tend to seek out new partners that are similar in terms of their characteristics (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014).

Assertive-oriented victims are also driven by low self-esteem but focus their efforts to restore their self-worth through the derogation of others (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). In short, they improve their own feelings of worth by making people around them feel bad. They usually try to, for instance, dominate, control, or even humiliate others to meet this end (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Assertive victims precipitate their own victimisation by interacting aggressively with people, which can lead to stress, frustration, or even anxiety amongst those around them (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). One main characteristic of assertive-oriented victims, besides their low level of self-esteem, is that they possess a dominant personality (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Indeed, assertive victims will try to convey their wishes and desires to people around them, which will generally not be well received (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014).

Anger-oriented victims harbour a "great deal of rage, either toward a specific person, group, institution, or a symbol of one of these" (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 416). This anger comes from a feeling of inadequacy or failure and, as a result, such victims often blame others for their problems, whether real or perceived (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Reasons for blaming others can be an emotional immaturity or an inability to take blame or responsibility for their own actions (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). In psychology, this is often referred to as "projection", which involves "attributing unacceptable impulses, feelings, or thoughts to other individuals" (Roeckelein, 2006, p. 252). To summarise, the victims' behaviours are driven by anger or revenge, which lead them to act impulsively and will bring about anxiousness, stress, and aggressive responses from others, increasing their chance of being victimised.

Because not all anger behaviours are retaliatory or excitatory in origin, the pervasive anger motivation has been added to the latest version of the "victim motivational typology" (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). The pervasive anger type is found in the Massachusetts Treatment Centre: Revision 3 (MTC: R3) developed by Knight et

al. (1998). According to Petherick and Ferguson (2012, p. 7), in some instances, “the anger is the result of a generalized state that is pervasive”. It will include individuals from whom “anger permeates many, if not all, aspects of life” (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 416). Anybody can be the target of the anger, because the anger is global and undifferentiated (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014).

The excitation-oriented type is the most difficult to adapt from the offenders’ typologies (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). In the offender typologies, the offender is classified as sadistic and refers to “an individual who experiences sexual gratification from the pain and suffering of another” (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 417). As sadism is a motivational construct involving at least two people, the sadist and the victim, this subtype requires slight modification to be applied to victim behaviours (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Therefore, to explain victim motivations, the excitation can take two different forms: sadism and masochism. In this context, sadism could mean actual sadism (directed at another) or masochism (directed at the self).

According to the DSM-5 (APA, 2013, p. 695), sexual sadism involves a “recurrent and intense sexual arousal from the physical or psychological suffering of another person, as manifested by fantasies, urges, or behaviors”. In sadistic cases, victim-precipitation occurs when the victim is engaged in sadistic acts and then fights back after realising the danger of the situation (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). On the other hand, sexual masochism is defined in the DSM-5 (APA, 2013, p. 694) as a “recurrent and intense sexual arousal from the act of being humiliated, beaten, bound, or otherwise made to suffer, as manifested by fantasies, urges, or behaviors”. In masochistic situations, victims expose themselves to harm or loss either alone or with a partner (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). It can include cases of hypoxyphilia or cases where victims are engaged in other forms of self-harm such as scarification or cutting (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). It is important to take into consideration that the number of excitation-oriented victims is predicted to be low (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012), according to the low number of excitation-oriented offenders (Hazelwood, 2009). Moreover, victims can also, in some cases, engage in self-harm in order to regulate negative affect. In this case, the behaviour could also be categorised as preservation-oriented behaviour (see below) (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012).

The materially-oriented victim is engaged in behaviours that serve material or personal gain, such as monetary, or through the acquisition of goods (Petherick &

Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). They can precipitate their own victimisation because of a lack of financial resources, which can, for instance, lead them to stay with an abusive but wealthy partner or a financially controlling one. In a study conducted in Texas, US, 85% of victims utilising the telephone hotline affirmed that they had left their abuser several times but that they had always returned to them because of financial despair (Buel, 1999). They can also increase their risk of becoming a victim by entering dangerous situations, such as becoming involved in prostitution, drug dealing, or being exploited by people who know that they are seeking money (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Additionally, situations that put victims in demanding position, such as gambling, drug addiction, staying with controlling partners, or unprofitable employment because of a lack of education, can result in depression, stress, and frustration and aggravate their situation (Buel, 1999). In cases where the behaviours create dissonance, such victims will minimise or rationalise the situation, thinking that it is necessary because the associate short-term costs are smaller than the long-term beneficial gains (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). However, such feelings will lead them to engage in increasingly risky behaviours, increasing their chance of becoming hurt and victimised. This is the only motivation that might not directly serve psychological needs (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014).

Self-preservation-oriented victims are those who engage in "strike back" behaviours against their oppressors (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). In this category, there is an attempt to restore or maintain an internal stability or homeostasis and eliminate the source of stress: an abusive partner who has generated a great deal of stress and anxiety, where in extreme cases, it can lead to the murder of the source of the aggression for self-preservation (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Moreover, in many cases, these attempts of physical and psychological regulation do not concern the victim only but also the people surrounding them, such as children (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Self-preservation victims who have suffered years of domestic abuse can one day fight back because their oppressor has threatened the safety or survival of children, friends, or relatives (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). This may be seen in so called cases of "battered women syndrome", where there is a self-defence claim (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). However, there are also some preservation-oriented victims who do not strike back but preserve themselves by staying in their abusive relationship due to fear of the consequences of

leaving their oppressors (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Indeed, some researchers have shown that one of the high-risk factors of domestic homicide is linked with the departure from the relationship of the victim (Johnson, Lutz, & Websdale, 2000; Turvey, 2008).

By adding the self-preservation type, it seems that the "victim motivational typology" does capture a vast majority of the types of needs and wants victims are likely to experience. This typology was developed because it was deemed "useful in understanding the psychological condition of victims (and potential victims), so as to provide a more holistic understanding of their behaviour before, during and potentially after, a crime" (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012, p. 109). There is strong anecdotal evidence for the practical utility of offender typologies (Groth & Birnbaum, 1979; Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Knight, 1999; Petherick & Turvey, 2008); therefore, identifying the main underlying reasons that lead to victimisation could also have a number of advantages.

Summary on Typology Literature

This final section of the literature review explored the use of typologies, in general, and within the discipline of criminology, in particular, to highlight their utility. The literature abounds with biological, legalistic, sociological, and psychological typologies to explain criminal behaviours. However, only a few typologies focus on victim behaviours. It is the work of von Hentig (1948), who adopted a positivist perspective, that was the first to identify biological, psychological, and sociological factors that were considered as contributing to the likelihood of victimisation. Others developed typologies that address victim involvement in the criminal act such as proposing a continuum of culpability for victims (Menseldohn, 1974; Schafer, 1977), focusing on the victim-offender relationship (Sellin & Wolfgang, 1964), or incorporating the degree of victim participation (Fattah, 1980). However, a major criticism of these early victim typologies is their controversial nature and a lack of empirical foundation.

Informed by the offender psychological typologies (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014) It is the work of Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) that has had the most impact, inspiring others to further develop the typology (Hazelwood, 2009; Knight, 1999; Petherick & Turvey, 2008). The Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom typology (1977) has demonstrated strength in classifying offenders and retains currency (Hazelwood, 2009; Petherick & Turvey, 2008; Mullen, Pathe, & Purcell, 2009). Petherick and Ferguson

(2012), further expanded by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), proposed the first victim psychological typology. This typology, derived from that of Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom (1977) and Hazelwood (2009), with some "slight modifications in order to be applicable to victimization and understanding victim type", is a reflection of the offender typologies as applied to the behaviour of crime victims (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 414). Despite adopting this approach, there remains the need to acknowledge that typologies have many limitations. They lack empirical foundation and are rather nominal, descriptive, or explanatory; they are dated and difficult to apply to concepts of the 21st century; and the types have porous boundaries which means they are not mutually exclusive.

Summary of Relevant Literature

Drawing on the four components of the literature review, it has been observed that the study of victims has expanded and much is now known about crime victims compared to any point in our history. However, following the "re-emergence" of the victim, there has been a tendency to deify some aspects of victimhood. The deification of crime victims is reflected in most public, media, and political discourse while a more rational and objective perspective should be considered when carrying out research on crime victims (Karmen, 2013; Kearon & Godfrey, 2007).

The first gap in the literature, resides in the fact that most research on causes of violence focuses on perpetration, while the role of the victim is often ignored (Addington, 2008). There may be many reasons for the lack of study on criminal victimisation but one explanation resides in the "fear of being accused of 'victim-blaming'" (Zur, 1994, para. 23). It is important to emphasise that there is a "fundamental distinction between the scientific investigation" of risk factors for victimisation and the "normative values that suggest that victims themselves are responsible for their experiences" (Franklin et al., 2011, p. 4). Examining the crime victim may lead to a greater understanding of the crime, as "victim and offender may in some instance be interchangeable" (Spalek, 2006, p.35). Even though there is a wealth of theoretical and empirical work that supports the apparent confluence between victims and offenders, the victim-offender overlap still tends to be downplayed or forgotten (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012).

There has been a return of the interest in psychological criminology over sociological criminology (Andrews & Bonta, 2010; Wortley, 2011). Researchers have started to acknowledge and "establish the place of biological and psychological factors among others as the reasons behind criminal offending" (White, Haines, & Asquith, 2017, p. 72). It is expected that because of the well-established victim-offender overlap (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012), there are analogous suggestions that the psychology of victims requires serious attention. However, as stated previously, the lacuna in this enterprise is a lack of attention on the psychological dimensions to understand criminal victimisation (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012). This focus on intra-individual features is of prime importance especially in the crime context of interpersonal violence, as violence occurs in the midst of a dyadic or ongoing relationship in which both parties interact within the confines of situational features as well as being impacted by social determinants (Hamby & Grych, 2013). Thus, there is a need to start focusing on the psychology of victim behaviours in order to obtain a better understanding of criminal victimisation.

These gaps in the literature suggest that further studies should be conducted on the intra-individual level in order to advance our knowledge of why some individuals are at risk of victimisation while others are not. In order to fulfil the gap and combined with our knowledge of the parallels between victims and offenders, it seems instructive to draw on extant typologies that were originally developed for offenders (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Hazelwood, 2009; Petherick & Turvey, 2008) to provide the impetus to produce psychological typologies of victims (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). According to Petherick and Sinnamon (2014, p. 409), the role of the victim in the criminal event "cannot be understated, and without the ability to account for their emotions, actions, and subsequent consequences, any understanding of the crime will be incomplete". There is a need to attenuate to victim characteristics. This is a necessary step for the field of criminology, and more specifically, victimology, as empirically validating a psychological victim typology will add to our repository of knowledge by capturing data from victims of interpersonal violent crime.

Chapter Three: Method

This dissertation is driven by the theoretical tradition of positivist victimology, which examines behavioural characteristics and personality traits of victims to better understand the emotional and psychological milieu of victimisation. More specifically, inspired by the work of Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) and the three offender typologies that prompt its construction, the Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977), Hazelwood (2009), and Petherick and Turvey (2008) typologies, this study advances an empirically based psychological typology for victim of interpersonal violence.

There are three main aims of this research. The first aim is to advance a psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violent crime that focuses on behavioural characteristics and personality traits, based on empirical data. The second aim is to apply the types of the advanced psychological typology for victims to a set of interpersonal violent offences, namely domestic violence, sexual assault, stalking, physical assault, and polyvictimisation. The third aim is to compare the behavioural characteristics and personality traits of the refined psychological typology with the four extant typologies.

This chapter presents an overview of how the research was conducted. First, information related to the recruitment methods and the respondents, who participated in the study, is provided. The next section of the chapter, includes detailed descriptors about how the questionnaire was constructed; it is essential to canvass each selected variable at length, as these are fundamental to the overall research design. This leads to a brief description of each subscale employed, followed by a presentation of the instrument itself. Finally, this chapter includes a description of the statistical analysis performed.

Recruitment

Given the difficulties in recruiting survey participants who self-identify as crime victims, the current research opted to utilise social media for the recruitment process. It was decided to use an online questionnaire, as it is a convenient way of gathering data from

target participants (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002; Popper, 2002) but also has the potential to reach a wide range of crime victims throughout Australia as well as provide anonymity given the sensitive nature of the questions. Online surveys are also useful as they allow the possibility to gather a large amount of information in a short period of time, at a relatively low cost, and the results can be quickly and easily quantified (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002). Moreover, there is an increase of crime victims that are turning to social media to convey their stories to the public and seek support for their causes (Canadian Resource Centre for Victims of Crime [CRCVC], 2011). More and more victims are using social media to increase the awareness of victim issues to the general public in order to enhance some changes to the criminal justice system (CRCVC, 2011).

Purposive sampling was used. To that end, a Facebook community page which differs from an official page for businesses, organisations, and public figures but is distinguished from individual personal pages on Facebook was employed. Community Facebook pages were first introduced in 2010, and thus, were relatively new at the time. They are primarily used by groups where there is a shared common interest, but access to this page is not restricted in any way by membership or other entry barriers. This community page was specifically created for the research project and was called "**Crime victims – A study of victims of crime in Australia**". In order to aid the identification of the topic of this page, the following six identifiers were employed: crime, victim, domestic violence, stalking, sexual assault, and physical assault.

Two strategies for promoting the community page were used. First, an exhaustive search was conducted on personal and community pages within the Facebook environment with a focus only on Australian pages. In 2014, the same six terms (crime, victim, domestic violence, stalking, sexual assault, and physical assault) were used to isolate those pages which reflected community groups, such as the closed group with over 200 members called Victims of Domestic Violence Australia and Australian Domestic Violence Survivors with almost 2,000 members. Overall in excess of 50 such pages were identified as relevant; it is important to reiterate that only Australian sites were contacted, as the sampling frame was exclusively focused on victims of interpersonal crimes of violence within Australia. These organisations were sent a private message, via the researcher's community page, which set out the purpose of the study and the link to the online survey website, in an attempt to sample as widely as possible.

The second recruitment strategy was again via Facebook by promoting online through an advertisement banner for a daily budget of AU$12 (see Figure 2). It was essential to utilise the paid function of Facebook in order to broaden the network of potential respondents. The paid advertisements appear as a newsfeed on the pages of current friends and their networks of friends on Facebook. The fees range from AU$5 to AU$200 per day, but for this research project, a low-level fee of AU$12 per day was spent for a period of nine months with expenditure over AU$3,200. Overall this yielded a total of 5,396 "likes". It should be noted that volunteer participants had to like the page in order to undertake the survey but this does not mean that each person who "liked" the page was willing and eligible to complete the questionnaire. The page contained a banner that included the name of the project plus a link to the online survey site.

Figure 2. Promotional Banner Used on Facebook to Advertise the Study.

The first contact that participants had with this research was made by reading the advertisement that was available on the Facebook community page as well as the regular posts that were used in order to promote the study and increase the number of participants (see Figure 3). A total of 15 such posts were made during the nine-month recruitment period. A link to access the online survey was available on the page, redirecting potential participants to the Survey Monkey platform. The second contact for potential participants was online via the explanatory statement/informed consent form that was provided as an

introduction to the survey (Appendix B). The questionnaire was available online for nine months beginning June 2014 and ending February 2015 in order to maximise the opportunity for victims of crime to participate in the study. No incentives were offered in consideration of participation.

Figure 3. Example of a Post Made on the Facebook Community Page.

An explanatory statement provided at the beginning of the survey outlined the purpose of the study (Appendix B). It included the protocol number, the researcher's name, the degree for which this study was executed, and the name of the university. Respondents were informed that all responses were confidential and that their responses were completely anonymous, since no identifying information was required. Moreover, respondents were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary and that they could decline or withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. It also included an estimated time of 50 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Given that this survey was delivered online, there was an electronic consent form at the start of the survey in which participants were asked to tick response buttons if they agreed to voluntarily participate in the study.

The Bond University Human Research Ethics Committee (BUHREC) approved the research in May 2014 (R01729) (Appendix B) and all of the research has been undertaken as described in the application and in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council's National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research. Obtaining ethics approval for this research project was difficult given that any research conducted with those claiming to have been victimised by crime is problematic for fear of re-traumatising or secondary victimisation to avoid "further harm" (Fuller, 2015a, p. vi). The approval process took 10 months and there were several questions raised by the ethics committee that required changes, especially to the manner in which participants were recruited. Initially, the recruitment method included accessing participants through victim support groups in order to obtain a broad and diverse sample that was nevertheless purposive. However, the ethics committee expressed concern that the participants could experience undue pressure to take part in the study because of the potential power-dependency relationship with others in the support groups or agencies. Therefore, in order to reduce this problem, the single recruitment method via social media was opted, which afforded greater anonymity and a wider reach of access to victims who may not have been part of any formal support group. In order to minimise the harm to participants, and in accordance with BUHREC, the respondents were informed of the potential risk and discomfort of participating in the study and no questions seeking details about their victimisation were included. Finally, contacts for the university's counselling services and Lifeline crisis support were provided.

In the explanatory statement, a limited form of deception, or mild deception, was used as part of the research design in order to reduce participant bias. Deception or the need to keep the respondents blind of the real purpose of the study is justified "if respondents' answers would be influenced [biased] if they understood the real purpose before their data were gathered" (Kelly & Lavrakas, 2008, p. 182). In the consent form, potential participants were informed that the study would ask about their personality traits and behaviours and that some questions could cause some discomfort, such as "Has imagining that someone causing you pain ever aroused you sexually?" The explanatory statement stated that the questionnaire included scales that were assessing psychological features, namely behavioural characteristics and personality traits that could influence participants' risk of victimisation. It is expected that if the purpose of the research had been fully disclosed to participants beforehand, data collection could have been

compromised (Scanlan, 2008). After data collection, a debrief form was provided that fully disclosed the purposes of the research (Appendix B). After full disclosure of the purpose of the study, respondents were asked if they "agreed" or "disagreed" for their data to be used. A summary of the findings was offered to those interested in the outcome, and contact details of the researcher were provided.

Respondents

As illustrated in Figure 4, altogether, the Facebook community page attracted 5600 "likes". From these individuals, 262 consented to be part of the study. A total of 13 respondents were disqualified because they were either under 18 or not a victim of crime. Therefore, a total of 249 individuals were included and commenced the survey. A further 89 respondents were excluded from the sample because they withdrew, failed to complete the entire questionnaire, or failed to provide their final consent for their data to be used in the study. The exclusion criteria covering participants in this study were, of necessity, very strict. This was important given the nature of the questionnaire requiring each participant to address every single question that comprised the scales otherwise the 24 criteria could not be compared. Thus, the final sample size was 160 participants.

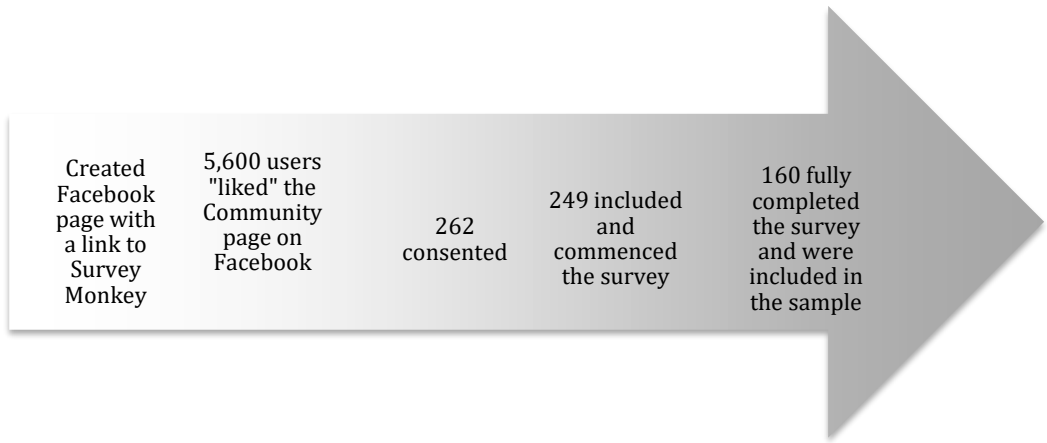

Figure 4. Graphic Representation of the Recruitment Process of the Study.

Data for this research were obtained from 160 self-identified Australian crime victims. To be eligible to participate in this research, the participants had to be Australian residents to provide a more homogenous sample, over 18 years of age, and a self-identified victim of one or more of the following crimes:

(1) *Domestic violence:* the respondent has been the victim of physical aggression by a family member, a household member, or intimate partner.
(2) *Sexual assault:* the respondent has been forced or coerced to participate in sexual activity.
(3) *Stalking:* the respondent has received unwanted communication and/or contact by somebody using a constellation of behaviours involving repeated and persistent actions.
(4) *Physical assault:* the respondent has been the victim of a direct infliction of force, injury or violence including attempts or threats.

The above definitions were provided on the online recruitment page to assist potential participants in their self-identification with the offence categories. While the example of the domestic violence crime category given to the potential participants to the survey was that of "physical assault", it was clear from the questionnaire that many other aspects of domestic violence were included. There were questions on financial, emotional, and sexual abuse and so the definition of domestic violence adopted in this study is a broad and inclusive one. As canvassed in the literature review, domestic violence, sexual assault, stalking, and physical assault are four types of serious interpersonal crimes, which are highly interconnected (Hamby & Grych, 2013). These four broad offence categories – domestic violence, sexual assault, stalking, and physical assault – also represent a large proportion of the interpersonal crimes experienced by Australians (Fuller, 2015b; Phillips & Vandenbroeck, 2014; Raj, 2017). As stated previously, victimisation was assessed by asking participants if they have already been victimised. If the answer was "no" or "?", the respondent was directly disqualified from the survey and barred from further access to the webpage.

Questionnaire Development

The processes involved in the construction of the questionnaire required substantial search and analytic work. As has been elaborated in the literature review chapter dealing with typologies, the present study took as its starting point the only known typology that directly addresses psychological features of victims. This was promulgated by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) but based on earlier work by Petherick and Ferguson (2012); however, neither were empirically based. Continuing to work backwards, it is clear that the genesis of these two Australian-developed victim typologies was the motivational

offender typology of Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977). This typology, in turn, has been adapted and expanded upon in the intervening period by both Hazelwood (2009) and Petherick and Turvey (2008). While these typologies are essentially derivative of the original version (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977), they are sufficiently different, or otherwise offer novel insights to warrant inclusion. Hence, it is these four typologies that comprise the foundation of the current study. It was essential to first engage in a comparative analysis of these four typologies to establish their similarities and differences across the types, and extract the key components that were germane to the present research as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

The 20 Types Within the Offender and Victim Psychological Typologies

Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977)	**Hazelwood (2009)**	**Petherick & Turvey (2008)**	**Petherick & Sinnamon (2014)**
(4 types)	**(4 types)**	**(5 types)**	**(7 types)**
Power Reassurance	Power Reassurance	Power Reassurance	Reassurance-Oriented
Power Assertive	Power Assertive	Power Assertive	Assertive-Oriented
Anger Retaliation	Anger Retaliation	Anger Retaliatory	Anger-Retaliatory
Anger Excitation	Anger Excitation	Anger Excitation	Excitation-Oriented
		Material Gain	Materially-Oriented
			Self-Preservation-Oriented
			Pervasively-Angry

All typologies include the original four types – reassurance, assertive, anger, and excitation – developed by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977). The "behavioural-motivational typology" (Petherick & Turvey, 2008) added a type called "Material gain". Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), also inspired by the work of Groth and colleagues (1977), described a materially-oriented type akin to Petherick and Turvey (2008) and added two new types labelled "Self-preservation-oriented" and "Pervasively-angry". Therefore, the expanded version of Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) comprised a total of seven different types. As the first aim of this thesis is to advance a psychological typology for victims, it was decided to adhere to the labels developed by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) for each of the types.

Once the typologies were selected, the next step was to examine each type within the typologies (20 in total) in order to find the main characteristics (see Tables 4 and 5). The process was to scan the definition from the original type in each of the typologies

and unpack their main features. For example, in their description of the reassurance-oriented victim type, Petherick and Sinnamon (2014, p. 415) described victims as having "low self-esteem and attempt to restore this by establishing relationships and engaging in behaviours that are intended to restore their self worth. […] They tend to feel inadequate and may perform poorly in social interactions". Thus, from this definition, the characteristics that were extracted were: low self-esteem, feeling of inadequacy, and social inadequacy.

With respect to the reassurance-oriented type, all of the four typologies concurred in describing low self-esteem individuals, with minimal skills in social relationships, and a need for reassurance. With the exception of Hazelwood (2009), the others, namely Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977), Petherick and Turvey (2008), and Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) also characterised this type as fearing rejection and possessing low levels of self-efficacy (as shown in Table 4). The "victim motivational" typology added features, such as being fearful of failure, and described this type as comprising submissive individuals. For the assertive-oriented type, all four typologies noted high levels of domination and low levels of self-esteem. Other main characteristics were narcissistic personality, feelings of inadequacy, social inadequacy, use of humiliation, aggression, impulsivity, fear of rejection, and lack of empathy. The anger-oriented type had a number of common characteristics, such as high levels of anger, aggression, impulsivity, and rage/revenge. Other recurrent characteristics included the use of humiliation, projection, being antisocial, and engaging in risky behaviours. The excitation-oriented type had one main characteristic in common, which was sadism, with distinctions between the three offender typologies and the victim typology. Offender typologies described this type as using aggression, torture, domination, and humiliation. On the other hand, the victim typology described this related type as more likely to engage in sadomasochistic encounters and use self-harm as a consequence. The materially-oriented type, only described by one offender typology (Petherick & Turvey, 2008) and the victim typology (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014) was characterised by variables, such as financial need and abuse, and a likelihood to use antisocial and risky behaviours. The preservation-oriented type, which only appeared in the Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) victim typology, featured use of self-defence and strike-back behaviours as preservation tools. The final type, the pervasively-oriented type, again described in the victim typology, represented

global and pervasive anger and was, therefore, mainly characterised by anger related traits and behaviours.

Table 4 illustrates the variables associated with the four common types: reassurance-oriented, assertive-oriented, anger-oriented, and excitation-oriented. The main characteristics of the reassurance-oriented types were: self-esteem, fear of rejection, fear of failure, social inadequacy, feeling of inadequacy, self-efficacy, need of reassurance, domination, aggression, pseudo-unselfish behaviours, impotency, and premature ejaculation. The main characteristics extracted from the definition of the assertive-oriented types were: narcissism, domination/authority, self-esteem, feeling of inadequacy, social inadequacy, fear of rejection, aggression, empathy, humiliation, impulsivity, impotency, and premature ejaculation. The main characteristics of the anger-retaliatory types were: anger, aggression, impulsivity, rage/revenge, antisocial behaviours, risky behaviours, humiliation, sexually and verbally selfish, projection, feeling of inadequacy, fear of failure. Finally, the main characteristics associated with the excitation-oriented types were: masochism, sadism, risky behaviours, self-harm, aggression, torture, domination, humiliation.

The variables associated with the less observed types are represented in Table 5 and include: materially-oriented, self-preservation-oriented, and pervasively-oriented. The main characteristics associated with the materially-oriented types were: financial need, antisocial behaviours, financial abuse, and risky behaviours. The main characteristics associated with the self-preservation-oriented type were: self-defence behaviours and strike-back behaviours. Finally, the main characteristics associated with the pervasively-angry type were: anger, aggression, impulsivity, rage/revenge, and projection.

Characteristics that were only offender oriented, such as impotency, premature ejaculation, pseudo-unselfish sexual behaviours, torture, and being sexually and verbally selfish were rejected (and excluded from Table 4), as they could not be applied to victim behaviours. Tables 4 and 5 summarise the main characteristics associated with each type of the four typologies.

Table 4

Behavioural Characteristics and Personality Traits Associated with the Four Recurrent Types in the Offender and Victim Psychological Typologies

	Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom (1977)	Hazelwood (2009)	Petherick & Turvey (2008)	Petherick & Sinnamon (2014)
Reassurance-Oriented				
Self-esteem	×	×	×	×
Fear of rejection	✓		✓	✓
Fear of failure				✓
Social inadequacy	✓	✓	✓	✓
Feeling of inadequacy	✓	✓	✓	✓
Self-efficacy	×	×	×	×
Need of reassurance	✓	✓	✓	✓
Domination				×
Aggression	×	×	×	
Assertive-Oriented				
Narcissism			✓	✓
Domination/Authority	✓	✓	✓	✓
Self-esteem	×	×	×	×
Feeling of inadequacy	✓	✓	✓	
Social inadequacy	✓		✓	
Fear of rejection	✓			
Aggression		✓	✓	✓
Empathy		×	×	
Humiliation	✓	✓	✓	
Impulsivity		✓	✓	✓
Anger-Retaliatory				
Anger	✓	✓	✓	✓
Aggression	✓	✓	✓	✓
Impulsivity	✓	✓	✓	✓
Rage/Revenge	✓	✓	✓	✓
Antisocial behaviours	✓		✓	
Risky behaviours			✓	
Humiliation	✓	✓	✓	
Projection			✓	✓
Feeling of inadequacy				✓
Fear of failure				✓
Excitation-Oriented				
Masochism				✓
Sadism	✓	✓	✓	✓
Risky behaviours				✓
Self-harm				✓
Aggression	✓	✓	✓	
Domination	✓	✓	✓	
Humiliation	✓	✓		

Note: High level= ✓, Low Level = ×

Table 5

Behavioural Characteristics and Personality Traits Associated with the Three Additional Types in the Offender and Victim Psychological Typologies

	Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom (1977)	Hazelwood (2009)	Petherick & Turvey (2008)	Petherick & Sinnamon (2014)
Materially-Oriented				
Financial need	NA	NA	✓	✓
Antisocial behaviours	NA	NA	✓	✓
Financial abuse	NA	NA		✓
Risky behaviours	NA	NA	✓	✓
Self-Preservation-Oriented				
Self-defence behaviours	NA	NA	NA	✓
Strike-back behaviours	NA	NA	NA	✓
Pervasively-Angry				
Anger	NA	NA	NA	✓
Aggression	NA	NA	NA	✓
Impulsivity	NA	NA	NA	✓
Rage/Revenge	NA	NA	NA	✓
Projection	NA	NA	NA	✓

Note: High level= ✓, NA= Non-Applicable

After removing the offender only variables, there were 24 measurable variables remaining that could be classified into two categories: the behavioural characteristics and personality traits (see Table 6). These 13 behavioural characteristics and 11 personality traits formed the foundation for constructing the questionnaire, and each of these were used as a subscale.

Table 6

The 24 Behavioural Characteristics and Personality Traits Variables Extracted from the Offender and Victim Psychological Typologies

Behavioural Characteristics	**Personality Traits**
Rage/Revenge	Self-esteem
Aggression	Self-efficacy
Domination	Fear of rejection
Humiliation	Fear of failure
Sadism	Reassurance seeking
Masochism	Social anxiety
Projection	Impulsivity
Antisocial behaviours	Anger
Risky behaviours	Narcissism
Self-harm behaviours	Feeling of inadequacy
Financial behaviours	Empathy
Self-defence behaviours	
Strike-back behaviours	

The next phase involved searching and selecting scales that could capture these 13 behavioural characteristics and 11 personality traits. A schedule of self-report measures evaluating the variables was established from existing and validated scales. For each variable, an internet and/or a library search was made and each related article was scrutinised and evaluated for relevance, item availability, and corresponding reliability. It has to be acknowledged that for each scale there were issues of conceptual relevance along with practical considerations that needed to be met in this selection process and these are canvassed in the next section.

Behavioural Characteristics

As demonstrated in Table 6, there were 13 common behavioural variables that have been extracted from the offender typologies of Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977), Hazelwood (2009), and Petherick and Turvey (2008) and the Petherick and Sinnamon victim typology (2014). These were: rage/revenge, aggression, domination, humiliation, sadism, masochism, projection, antisocial behaviours, risky behaviours, self-harm behaviours, financial behaviours, self-defence behaviours, and strike-back behaviours. The following provides a rationale for the selection of each scale and a detailed description of these scales used to construct the questionnaire by including name, number of items, ranging methods, an example of a scale item, and reliability when available; technical details are presented as boxed information.

Rage/revenge was a fundamental characteristic of the anger-retaliatory victim type as well as the anger retaliation types in the offender typologies. As posited by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014, p. 416), "anger-retaliatory victims operate out of revenge". After scouring the literature for a scale that measures rage/revenge, it was decided to use the 11-item "Revenge Planning" subscale of the Displaced Aggression Questionnaire (DAQ; Denson, Pedersen, & Miller, 2006) for two reasons. First, it assessed the trait vengefulness, which is defined as the need to seek revenge in response to provocation, and aligns closely with the rage/revenge variable. Second, for practicability reasons, it was the only scale available online and free of charge.

Revenge Planning subscale of the Displaced Aggression Questionnaire (DAQ)

The Revenge Planning Subscale of the DAQ is an 11-item subscale. This subscale rates on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*extremely uncharacteristic of me*) to 7 (*extremely characteristic of me*). The revenge score ranges from 11 to 77. The higher the score, the more the respondent uses revenge planning. An example of an item is "If somebody harms me, I am not at peace until I can retaliate". The internal consistency of the DAQ is high with a Cronbach's alpha of .95 and a Sperman-Brown split-half of .86 (Denson, Pedersen, & Miller, 2006). The reliability for the revenge planning scale is also high with an alpha of .93.

As anger-oriented, pervasively-angry, and excitation-oriented types all encompass the use of **aggression**, the aim was to find a scale that could capture this anger component. The Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (BPAQ; Buss & Perry, 1992) was chosen to measure the aggression variable, as it is a very simple and well-used scale as a measure of aggression in adults (Archer, 2004). Moreover, the full scale was available online and "no permission" was needed if it was "used for research purposes" (Buss & Perry, 1992, p. 452). It provided a general score of aggression but also a more specific evaluation about the aggression, as it was divided into four factors: physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger, and hostility. This instrument was created to replace the Hostility Inventory developed by Buss and Durkee, in 1957, and according to Buss and Perry (1992, p. 452), it "retains the major virtue of the older inventory", namely, the analysis of aggression as several components, whilst meeting "current psychometric standards".

Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (BPAQ)

The BPAQ is a 29-item scale that is coded by using a 5-point continuum from 1 (*extremely uncharacteristic of me*) to 5 (*extremely characteristic of me*). The scores from the four factors can be summed to obtain a total score of "trait aggressiveness" and then obtain an overall level of aggressiveness. The higher the score, the more aggressive the respondent is likely to be. An example of an item from the BPAQ is "I get into fights a little more than the average person". The BPAQ presents a Cronbach's alpha of .89 (Buss & Perry, 1992). This scale also offers an adequate stability over time considering the small number of items with a reliability of .80 (Buss & Perry, 1992).

The use of **domination** has been described in two different types of the typologies: assertive and excitation. A scale that was labelled and that measured domination could not be located; however, some scales measured "directiveness". The term, directiveness, which was operationally defined as the "aggressive subset of dominant behaviours" (Ray & Lovejoy, 1988, p. 299), fit the description of domination in the typologies. The most frequently used instruments to measure the concept of directiveness were the Ray Directiveness Scale or the Lorr and More Scale. However, previous empirical studies showed that those scales were deficient in reliability and,

therefore, needed to be improved (Ray & Lovejoy, 1988). A hybrid scale called "Henceforth Mark VI" (Ray & Lovejoy, 1988) was developed as it demonstrated a considerable psychometric improvement. This directiveness scale measures "non-aggressive dominance and authoritarianism as aggressive dominance" (Ray & Lovejoy, 1988, p. 299), and, therefore, was selected to measure the use of aggressive and non-aggressive dominant behaviours.

Henceforth Mark VI

The Henceforth Mark VI scale is a 14-item, yes/no format. A response *yes* scores 3 and *no* scores 1, with an *I don't know* as the mid-point scoring 2, unless the item is marked with an "R". In that case, the scoring is reversed (Ray, 1976). The higher the score, the higher the respondent displays domination and authoritarianism. An example of an item from the Mark VI scale is "Do you tend to boss people around". As stated by Ray and Lovejoy (1988), this new hybrid scale is valid with a reliability of .85.

The notion of **humiliation** refers to "two different forms of experience: the act of humiliating or being humiliated and the state or feeling of being humiliated" (Hartling & Luchetta, 1999, p. 264). This variable was derived exclusively from the offender typologies; such a behavioural variable did not form part of the victim typology formulated by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014). Within the definition offered by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) and Hazelwood (2009), the variable, humiliation, adopted in the present study needed to cover the frequency of humiliating behaviours that one individual is likely to use to humiliate others. It also addressed the twofold definition given above, namely that humiliation constitutes an act that can be inflicted or received and for this reason, it was deemed essential to incorporate it as a measure of victim behaviour (Koestenbaum, 2011). The humiliation variable was assessed by the Humiliation Inventory developed by Hartling and Luchetta (1999) using the 12 items of the Cumulative Humiliation Subscale (CHS; Hartling & Luchetta, 1999). For the purposes of this study, however, it was transformed by asking respondents to rate the number of times they humiliated others.

Cumulative Humiliation subscale (CHS) of The Humiliation Inventory Transformed

The Cumulative Humiliation Subscale (CHS) transformed includes 12 items. One example is "Throughout your life how often have you harmed people by teasing them". The items were structured as a sentence stem followed by a number of response options using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*very often*) and the measure is obtained by summing up the 12 items. The total scores range from 12 to 60 with a higher score reflecting more frequent use of humiliating behaviours.

Sadism and **masochism** were prime characteristics of the excitation-oriented type in the offender typologies. It was also presupposed by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) that victims of crime could exhibit two forms of excitation behaviours: sadism, which is

directed internally; masochism, which is directed internally; or a combination of both, sadomasochism. Therefore, two scales that measure sadism and masochism were required in order to determine if crime victims would exhibit sadomasochistic behaviours as assumed by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014). Sadism and masochism are included in the DSM-5 (APA, 2013, pp. 694-695) as paraphilic disorders, each of then defined as "any intense or sexual arousal from the physical or psychological suffering from another person" or "any intense arousal from the act of being humiliated". Kurt Freund was one of the most influential researchers in the area of paraphilia and his scales have been used in a large number of studies (Blanchard, 2011). Consequently, the variables, sadism and masochism, were assessed in the current study using two subscales of the Erotic Preferences Examination Scheme (EPES): the sadism and the masochism scales (Freund, Steiner, & Chan, 1982).

Sadism and Masochism Scales

The Sadism Scale comprises 20 items, with mostly yes/no response options, which explores sadistic tendencies. For each of the questions in this scale, if the respondents answer "*no*" or "*don't remember*" they receive a score of 0 and a "*yes*" response elicits a score of 1. The total score is obtained by summing the responses. The higher the score, the more sadistic tendencies the respondent has. An example of an item in the Sadism scale is "Has imagining someone being choked by yourself or somebody else ever excited you sexually?" Similarly, the Masochism Scale is an 11-item scale with mostly yes/no response options that explores masochistic tendencies. For each of the questions in the scale, if the respondents answer "*no*" or "*unsure*" they will receive a score of 0 and the response "*yes*" is given a score of 1. Then, the total score can be obtained by summing the responses. The higher the score, the more masochistic tendencies the respondent has. An example of an item of the Masochism scale is "Has imagining that someone was causing you pain ever aroused you sexually?" According to Freund and Blanchard (1998), these scales have an internal reliability coefficient of .87 and .83 respectively but the test-retest reliabilities have never been computed.

The anger-retaliatory type described by Petherick and Turvey (2008) and the anger-retaliatory and pervasively-angry types described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) include in their description the use of **projection** by individuals. Therefore, the goal was to find a scale that could identify the use of the projection, which is a defence mechanism that consists of denying unpleasant situations while accrediting them to others (Bilić et al., 1998). Projection is especially likely to occur when the person lacks insight into his/her own impulses and traits (Bilić et al., 1998). Normal populations and psychiatric patients differ in their use of projection and, therefore, it is possible to differentiate various levels of psychic maturity or psychopathology by estimating the projection level (Bilić et al., 1998). Projection and projective identification are commonly connected with primitively organised personalities such as Borderline Personality Disorder, Narcissitstic Personality Disorder, Antisocial Personality Disorder, and

psychopathy (APA, 2013). Until the creation of "the Projection Questionnaire" by Bilić and colleagues (1998), there was no acceptable specific instrument for measuring the defence mechanism projection. This questionnaire was chosen for the present research, because it contains statements that are characteristic to projection behaviours and helps to delimit between normal and pathological behaviours.

Projection Questionnaire

The Projection Questionnaire is an 18-item self-report scale using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*no, never*) to 5 (*yes, ever*) with concomitant scores ranging from 0 to 4 (Bilić et al., 1998). If the score ranges between 0 and 19, it is interpreted as having low use of projection or "normal projection" and that reveals no significant psychopathology. If the score is from 20 to 34 or 35 and over, there are moderate or severe levels of projection, which can be an indication of moderate to severe psychopathology. An example of an item from in Projection Questionnaire is "The causes of my anger are other people".

The anger-oriented and the materially-oriented described various behaviours such as binge drinking, drug use, drug selling, and prostitution, which are all characterised as **antisocial behaviours** in their definition. Therefore, it was important to include a measure of antisocial behaviours in the study questionnaire. There is a growing recognition that meaningful and subsequent important behavioural distinctions exist within the broader category of antisocial behaviours (Burt & Donnellan, 2009). In order to fully assess this broader category of antisocial behaviours, a distinction between physically aggressive behaviours, rule-breaking behaviours, and socially aggressive behaviours had to be made (Burt & Donnellan, 2009, 2010). Until the development of the Subtypes of the Antisocial Behaviour Questionnaire (STAB; Burt & Donnellan, 2009), there was a lack of an efficient self-report assessment of the three manifestations of antisocial behaviours. The STAB was included in the questionnaire because it is a short, reliable, and comprehensive tool that assesses these three forms of antisocial behaviours.

Antisocial Behavior Questionnaire (STAB)

The STAB is a 32-item, self-report inventory, with a 5-point scale, rated from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*nearly all the time*). The STAB is divided into three subscales: physical aggression (10 items), rule breaking (11 items), and social aggression (11 items). The scores from the three subscale factors can be summed to obtain a total score of antisocial behaviours. The higher the score is, the higher the respondent can be considered as using antisocial behaviour. An example of an item from the STAB is "Have you already sold drugs, including marijuana?" Studies carried out provide sound psychometric results with a good internal consistency (Study 2 = .77; Study 3 = .70; Study 4 = .80; Study 5 = .80) and criterion-related validity (Burt & Donnellan, 2009).

The use of **risk-taking behaviours** is a key feature of the anger-retaliatory, excitation-oriented, and materially-oriented in most of the offender and victim typologies. There are individual differences in attitude towards risk; consequently, Weber, Blais, and

Betz (2002) developed an instrument to assess these differences: the Domain-Specific Risk-Attitude Scale (DOSPERT). One major reason why this scale was chosen is that it allows researchers to assess both conventional risk attitudes (level of risk taking) and perceived risk attitudes (willingness to engage in a risky activity) in five commonly encountered domains: financial decisions, health/safety, recreational, ethical, and social decisions. In comparison with another two scales which also measure domain specific risk, the DOSPERT was the only scale available online and free of charge. For the purpose of this research, and again in order to keep the number of items as low as possible, the risky behaviours variable was assessed using 15 items selected in terms of loadings on each subscale. The DOSPERT also presented very good psychometric characteristics.

Domain Specific Risk Attitude Scale (DOSPERT)

In the DOSPERT, respondents are asked to rate their likelihood of engaging in some activity by using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*very unlikely*) to 5 (*very likely*). The score of risky behaviour was obtained by summing up the 15 items, and the total scores range from 0 to 75. The higher the score is, the more the respondent is engaging in risky behaviours. An example of an item from the DOSPERT is "How often have you been walking home alone at night in a somewhat unsafe area of town?" The original Risk-Attitude Scale offers good psychometric outcomes (Weber, Blais, & Betz, 2002).

Self-harm was an important component of the definition of the excitation-oriented victim type offered by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014, p. 418), in which they described the use of self-harm as a "form of physical pain" that "moderates psychological pain for which there is little insight"; therefore, it was included as a variable in the present study. A number of measures were available for the assessment of self-harm behaviours, such as the Chronic Self-Destructive Scale (CSDS; Kelley et al., 1985), the Self-Harm Behavior Survey (Favazza, 1986), and the Self Injury Questionnaire (SIQ; Simpson et al., 1994). They vary considerably in terms of content, number of items, time of completion, and availability. For the purpose of this study, self-harm behaviours were assessed using the Self-Harm Inventory (SHI; Sansone & Sansone, 2010) as it is a 1-page inventory (22 items only), takes five or less minutes to complete, and was free of charge. The SHI also screens for the lifetime prevalence of self-harm behaviours and can detect borderline personality symptomatology, which can be crucial when looking at a victim sample (Sansone & Sansone, 2010).

Self-Harm Inventory (SHI)

The SHI is a 22-item scale that explores respondents' "History of Self-Harm" with each item in the inventory preceded by the phrase, "Have you ever intentionally, or on purpose …?" It includes behaviours, such as "cut yourself, burned yourself, hit yourself, scratched yourself, and prevented wounds from healing" (Sansone & Sansone, 2010, p. 18). Moreover, it includes three eating-disorder items ("exercised an injury on purpose, starved yourself to hurt yourself, abused laxatives to hurt yourself"), two high-lethal items ("overdosed, attempted suicide"), and three items relating to medical issues ("prevented wounds from healing, made medical situations worse, abused prescription medication"). The score of self-harm behaviours was obtained by summing up the "yes" responses with a maximum possible score of 22. The higher the score, the more the respondents self-identified as engaging in self-harm behaviours. A psychometric analysis of the SHI conducted by Latimer and colleagues (August 19, 2009) on a sample of 423 non-clinical participants showed reasonable reliability with a Person Separation Index (PSI) of .82 and a Cronbach's alpha of .83.

In both the offender typology by Petherick and Turvey (2008) and the "victim motivational typology" by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), the concept of material-gain was included. They imply that offending and victimisation occur as a result of material and financial needs. Moreover, Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), in their description of the materially-oriented victim type, suggested that financial abuse could be the reason why some individuals stay in an abusive relationship. Thus, it was deemed useful to include a variable called **financial need** and another one called **financial abuse**. The variable, financial need, was assessed in the demographic part of the questionnaire by asking the respondents, "What are your personal and total household incomes in AU Dollars" using a 3-point Likert scale, (1) *Under AU$29,999*; (2) *AU$30,000-AU$74,999*; and (3) *Over AU$75,000*. Respondents who answered (1) were considered to be in financial need. In order to assess the financial abuse variable, the Scale of Economic Abuse (SEA; Adams et al., 2008) was chosen as it measures financial abuse as a distinct form of abuse. Moreover, the SEA is a brief scale, reflective of a broad range of economically abusive tactics, widely applicable to respondents, and available free of charge online. The scale also presented very good psychometric values.

Scale of Economic Abuse (SEA)

The SEA is a 28-item, self-report inventory, using a 7-point Likert scale with the score awarded from 1 = *never* to 5 = *quite often*. The SEA contains two subscales: the Economic Control subscale (17 items), which "captures behaviors that control a woman's access to and use of resources" and the Economic Exploitation subscale (11 items), which captures "economically exploitative behaviors" (Adams et al., 2008, p. 580). An elevated score suggests a higher level of financial abuse. An example of an item from the SEA is "Could you tell me, to the best of your recollection, how frequently your partner or ex-partner has done things to keep you from having money of your own?" Cronbach's alpha of the total SEA is .93, with good internal consistency for the Economic Control and Economic Exploitation subscales with .91 and .89 respectively (Adams et al., 2008).

Because of the description of the self-preservation-oriented type provided by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), it was decided that a scale that measures **self-defence**

behaviours that applied to crime victims should be included in the questionnaire. In order to assess the **self-defence behaviours** variable, a 23-item scale was created. This scale is wholly new, as there was no existing scale that would measure self-defence behaviours. The newly developed scale was named "Self-defence behaviour". Two types of defensive behaviours were included: psychological defence (use of defence mechanisms) and physical defence (use of actions). The first 14 items were created to assess the use of the following defence mechanisms: rationalisation, projection, introjection, identification, isolation of affect, sublimation, repression, suppression, conversion, regression, reaction formation, simple denial, and splitting. Each defence mechanism was inserted in a question that was formatted in the following way: "Have you ever used (defence mechanism) to explain, leave, or deal with some situations?" Each defence mechanism was explained or defined after each item. The final nine items were created to assess the use of physical defence and included the following actions: kicked back, punched back, shoved, slapped, pushed, burnt, bit, stabbed, and chocked. Each of the physical actions were inserted in a question that was formatted in the following way: "I have thought of or already [action] an abusive person".

Self-Defence Behaviours

The final scale was a 23-item inventory rated by using a yes/no format. The higher the score, the more the respondent was likely to use self-defence behaviours. The scale provided good psychometric results with an acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .788$).

Because of the description of the self-preservation-oriented type provided by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), it was decided that a scale that measures strike-back behaviours that applied to crime victims should be included in the questionnaire. In order to assess the **strike-back behaviours** variable, an 11-item scale was included. This scale had to be created, as there was no existing scale that would measure strike-back behaviours. The newly developed scaled was named "Strike-back behaviours". The first two items of the strike-back behaviours scale ("Have you already been scared about your safety or somebody else's safety?"; "Have you already been scared about your survival or somebody else's survival?") were created to elicit whether respondents had experienced a situation when they were scared about their own safety and survival at some point. The four following items were designed to determine if the respondent experienced situations where they had contemplated using strike-back behaviours "Have you ever thought about engaging yourself in strike-back behaviour (living, fighting back, or killing an abusive partner) in order to protect yourself (item 3), your children (item 4),

your family members (item 5), or one of your friends (item 6)?". The next four items in this newly-created scaled included: "Have you ever been engaged in strike-back behaviour (living, fighting back, or killing an abusive partner) in order to protect yourself (item 7), your children (item 8), your family members (item 9), or one of your friends (item 10)?" The final item ("Have you ever been scared of leaving an abusive partner by fear of the consequences?") intended to elicit whether the fear of the situation was stronger than the actual behaviour of leaving or putting an end to the victimisation.

Strike-Back Behaviours

The constructed 11-item strike-back behaviours scale was assessed using a yes/no format. A score of 1 was attributed if the answer was "*yes*" and a score of 0 was attributed if the answer was "*no*" (noting that Item 11 used a reversed code). A higher score on this measure implied that respondents identified themselves as using strike-back behaviours. The scale provided good psychometric result with an acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .765$).

All together there were 13 behavioural characteristics that were extracted from the extant typologies and included in the questionnaire: rage/revenge (11 items), aggression (29 items), domination (14 items), humiliation (12 items), sadism (20 items), masochism (11 items), projection (18 items), antisocial behaviours (32 items), risky behaviours (15 items), self-harm behaviours (22 items), financial behaviours (28 items), self-defence behaviours (23 items), and strike-back behaviours (11 items). All together the 13 behavioural characteristics contained 246 items.

Personality Traits Variables

As demonstrated in Table 6, there were 11 recurring personality trait variables that have been extracted from the Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977), Hazelwood (2009), and Petherick and Turvey (2008) typologies of offenders and the victim typology developed by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014). These variables include: self-esteem, self-efficacy, fear of rejection, fear of failure, reassurance seeking, social anxiety, impulsivity, anger, narcissism, feeling of inadequacy, and empathy. The following provides a rationale for each scale selected, followed by a detailed description of each personality trait scale used to construct the questionnaire by including name, number of items, ranging methods, an example of item and reliability when available; the technical details are presented as boxed information.

As each of the four typologies described individuals suffering low self-esteem and self-efficacy in their description of the reassurance-oriented types, scales that revealed

individual levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy were included in the questionnaire. After reviewing 33 **self-esteem** measures, Heatherton and Wyland (2003) estimated that four scales, Rosenberg Self-Esteem, Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy, Coopersmith Self-Esteem, and Tennessee Self-Concept, provided the most superior measures. While three of these addressed affective qualities of the self-concept, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965) was the only one that measures global self-esteem. Moreover, the RSES was available online, is a short scale, and is widely used in social science research. Therefore, the self-esteem variable was assessed using the RSES.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES)

The RSES is a 10-item, self-report survey with Guttman-style response options, ranging on a 4-point scale, from 0 (*strongly disagree*) to 3 (*strongly agree*). The measure has some reverse-scored items (items 3, 5, 8, 9, 10; with 0=3; 1=2; 2=1; 3=0), comprises five positively worded statements, and five negatively worded. The resulting score is a measure of "global self-esteem" (Rosenberg, 1965) and is obtained by summing the scores of the 10 items. The self-esteem score ranges from 0 to 30 with a higher score denoting higher self-esteem. The typical scores are around 22, with most people scoring between 15 and 25 (Heatherton & Wyland, 2003). A score below 15 may indicate a problematic low self-esteem. An example of an item from the RSES is "I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others". This scale generally demonstrates a high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha in the range of .77 to .88 and test-retest correlations typically in the range of .82 to .88 (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1993).

Self-efficacy, however, refers to individual's confidence that their own actions are responsible for a successful outcome (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). It was decided to assess self-efficacy using the General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE; Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). This scale was chosen over other scales as the GSE is a well-known instrument, internationally used, and translated into 33 languages. The scale comprises only 10 items and is simple to administer and interpret (Schwarzer, 2014). Additionally, the scale measures one global dimension of self-efficacy with high reliability and validity (Schwarzer, 2014).

General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE)

The GSE is a 10-item, self-report survey, which requires four minutes on average to be completed, made on a 4-point scale from 1 (*not at all true*) to 4 (*exactly true*). This scale measures a "general sense of perceived self-efficacy" that can be scored by summing up the 10 responses to obtain a final score ranging from 10 to 40, with an elevated score indicating greater perceived self-efficacy. An example of an item from the GSE is "I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events". The scale yields Cronbach's alphas ranging from .76 to .90, which implies a high internal consistency (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995).

Within the four typologies relied upon in the present research, reassurance-oriented types mostly describe individuals (victims or offenders) as likely to fear rejection, fear failure, and seek reassurance. Fear of rejection, fear of failure, and reassurance seeking all derive from a need for social approval. When scrutinising the

literature to find a scale that measures **fear of rejection** specifically, it appeared that it was linked with attachment theory and, therefore, the attachment anxiety dimension of the Experience in Close Relationships scale (ECR; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998) was chosen. This subscale involves the measure of "a fear of interpersonal rejection or abandonment, an excessive need for approval from others, and distress when one's partner is unavailable or unresponsive" (Wei et al., 2007, p. 188). Moreover, the subscale is short (18 items), available online free of charge for use in the public domain, and presented very good psychometric scores (Wei et al., 2007).

Anxiety subscale of the Experience in Close Relationships Scale (ECR)

The anxiety subscale has 18 items using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*disagree strongly*) to 7 (*agree strongly*). There was only one reverse-scored item (item 11). Respondents are asked to rate how well each statement describes their general experience in relationships, not just in the current relationship, in order to allow all participants who are not currently involved in a relationship to respond. A high score represents higher levels of attachment anxiety. An example of an item from the ECR is "I worry about being abandoned". According to Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998), the anxiety subscale has a high level of internal consistency with an alpha coefficient of .91. Two studies reported test-retest reliabilities of .70 over a three-week interval and .68 for a six months period (Wei et al., 2007).

The second variable that characterises the reassurance-oriented type is **fear of failure,** and this was assessed using the Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory Revised form (PFAI-Revised; Conroy, Willow, & Metzler, 2002). This scale employs a multidimensional measure of cognitive-motivational-relational appraisals associated with fear of failure (Conroy, Willow, & Metzler, 2002). The PFAI-Revised has an improved factorial validity compared to the first version and was available online free of charge. For the purpose of the current study, and in order to keep the number of items limited while still measuring fear of failure, it was elected to maintain only 11 of the 25 items of the PFAI-Revised. The 11 items were selected based on their Cronbach's alpha values (>.70).

Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory Revised form (PFAI-Revised-modified)

The PFAI-Revised-modified contained 11-items that adopt a 5-point scale ranging from -2 (*do not believe at all*) to +2 (*believe 100% of the time*). The total score is calculated by adding up the scores of each item, with total scores ranging from -22 to 22. The higher the score, the more the respondent is experiencing a fear of failure. An example of an item used in the present research is "When I am failing, I believe that everybody knows I am failing". Construct validity evidence has been found for this inventory (Conroy, Metzler, & Hofer, 2003; Conroy, Willow, & Metzler, 2002). According to Conroy, Willow, and Metzler (2002), Cronbach's alpha for the fear of experiencing shame and embarrassment and fear of devaluing one's self-estimate factors are .80 and .74 respectively.

Excessive **reassurance seeking** comprises the third element of the reassurance-oriented type as specified in the four typologies. It is a maladaptive emotion regulation

strategy wherein people ask others about their worth in order to reduce anxiety (Cougle et al., 2012). Excessive reassurance seeking has been demonstrated to be related to social anxiety (Cougle et al., 2012) and depression (McClintock, McCarrick, & Anderson, 2014). In 2012, a new instrument to measure reassurance seeking was developed by Cougle and colleagues: The Threat-Related Reassurance Seeking Scale (TRSS). This scale was selected to measure reassurance seeking as it is a short scale, possessing high internal consistency and test-retest reliability, and was available online free of charge.

Threat-Related Reassurance Seeking Scale (TRSS)

The TRSS has eight items generated to assess reassurance-seeking behaviour related to general and evaluative threat with four items included to assess each of the two dimensions (Cougle et al., 2012). The TRSS uses a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (*very untrue of me*) to 7 (*very true of me*). These are summed to provide a total score where a higher score reflects elevated levels of reassurance-seeking behaviour. An example of an item from the TRSS is "Do you find yourself often asking others whether everything will be alright?" The scale is deemed to possess high internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of .92 and good test-retest reliability (Cougle et al., 2012).

As the reassurance and assertive-oriented types of all typologies described individuals with diminished skills in social relationships, it was necessary to find a scale that could reveal social interaction problems. To assess the **social anxiety** variable, it was decided to use the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS; Mattick & Clarke, 1998), as it reveals anxiety specific to social interaction in dyads or groups. Moreover, the scale is useful, widely used in clinical settings and among researchers, available online free of charge, and easily scored. Additionally, the SIAS possesses high levels of internal consistency and test-retest reliability.

Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS)

The SIAS is a 20-item, self-report survey, with Likert-style response options, rated from 0 (*not at all characteristic or true of me*) to 4 (*extremely characteristic or true of me*). This scale contains three positively worded items (5, 9, and 11). The score of social interaction anxiety is obtained by summing up the 20 items (after reversing the three positively worded items), and the total score ranges from 0 to 80, with higher scores reflective of social interaction anxiety. An example of an item from the SIAS is "I tense up if I meet an acquaintance in the street". This scale has a high level of internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of .94 and a high test-retest correlation of .92 after four and 12 weeks (Mattick & Clarke, 1998).

As the assertive-oriented and anger-retaliatory types of all typologies described impulsive individuals, it was important to find a scale that could assess impulsivity. Specific instruments to assess impulsivity have been developed from different theoretical points of view, such as the Barratt Impulsivity Scale (Patton, Stanford, & Barratt, 1995), the Dickman Impulsivity Inventory (Dickman, 1990), and the Impulsiveness-

Venturesomeness-Empathy questionnaire (Eysenck et al., 1985). The Dickman model was selected, because it is the only one that emphasises the fact that impulsivity is not always negative. In the Dickman model, impulsivity exists in the form of two different traits: functional impulsivity, which results in rapid inaccurate performance in situations where this is optimal and dysfunctional impulsivity, which results in rapid, inaccurate performance in situations which is non-optimal (Dickman, 1990). The Dickman Impulsivity Inventory-short version (DII-short; Adan et al., 2010), was chosen as it used a 5-point Likert scale instead of the original format of response (yes/no), because the former measures attitudes and opinions with a greater degree of nuance than a simple "yes/no" question (Maxfield & Babbie, 2012). Moreover, this version of the DII-short assessed the personality trait of impulsiveness, and it has only 23 items and was available online free of charge.

Dickman Impulsivity Inventory-short version (DII-short)

The DII-short, as adapted by Adan and colleagues (2010), has 23 items and used a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*totally in disagreement*) to 5 (*totally in agreement*). The scores range from 11 to 55 for the functional subscale and from 12 to 60 for the dysfunctional (Adan et al., 2010). The higher the score is, the more the respondent is using impulsive behaviours. An example of an item from the DII-short (modified) is "I will often say whatever comes into my head without thinking first". This scale presents stable reliability and validity (Gao, Zhang, & Jia, 2011).

Anger is the main component of the anger-retaliatory and pervasively-angry types as evidenced in the names of these types. When scanning the literature for a scale that could effectively measure anger as a trait, a promising instrument, which has been subjected to tentative evaluation procedures was the 89 items Anger Self-Report Questionnaire (ASR; Zelin, Adler, & Myerson, 1972). However, it was decided to use the 30 items ASR (ASR-30); Reynolds, Walkey, & Green, 1994), as it measures general anger as a trait and is a shorter version, which limited the overall length of the survey instrument in the present study. The ASR-30 was available online free of charge and had a very good internal consistency as opposed to the original version.

Anger Self-Report Questionnaire (ASR-30)

The ASR is a 30-item scale with Likert type self-response options ranging from 1 (*strong disagreement*) to 6 (*strong agreement*). The ASR contains 17 negatively worded items. The score of "general anger" is obtained by summing the 30 items (after reversing the score of the negatively worded items) and the total scores range from 30 to 180. The higher the score, the higher the levels of general anger are. An example of an item from the ASR is "I get mad easily". The psychometric characteristics of this short version are better than the full 89 item version, as it is "highly reliable, homogeneous measure of anger, and is apparently a significant psychometric improvement over the original ASR" (Reynolds, Walkey, & Green, 1994, p. 69).

Narcissism is an important variable in the description of the assertive-oriented type described by Petherick and Turvey (2008) for offenders and Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) for victims. The most widespread measure used by non-clinical researchers to measure narcissism is the 40-item Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI-40). According to Raskin and Howard (1988, p. 892), the NPI was developed to "explore individual differences in narcissism, as those differences may be expressed in nonclinical populations". This inventory captures a range of different aspects of narcissism, but its length prohibits its use in settings where time pressure and respondent fatigue are major concerns (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006). Therefore, it was decided to use the short version of the Narcissistic Personality Inventory, the NPI-16 (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006) that had 16 items only but still possesses "notable face, internal, discriminant, and predictive validity" and "can serve as an alternative measure of narcissism when situations do not allow the use of longer inventories" (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006, p. 440).

Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI-16)

The NPI-16 is a 16-item, forced choice inventory, which measure "subclinical narcissism". The scores are computed by coding 1 for narcissistic-consistent responses and 0 for narcissism-inconsistent responses. An example of an item of narcissistic consistent versus non-consistent responses is "I like to be the centre of attention" versus "I prefer to blend in with the crowd". The narcissistic-consistent and inconsistent responses were randomly presented in order to reduce response bias. The total score ranges from 0 to 16, with a high score indicative of narcissism. The NPI-16 had Cronbach's alpha values of .69 and .78 and high test-retest reliability over a 5-week interval (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006).

As the reassurance and assertive-oriented subtypes described individuals with **feelings of inadequacy**, it was important to locate a scale that could reveal individuals' feelings of inadequacy. There are many self-concept scales; however, the instrument that proved to be the most appropriate for this study was the Revised Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (R-JFFIS) (Eagly, 1967). Like the original version, the 23-item Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (JFFIS), the R-JFFIS was developed to measure "feelings of inadequacy, self-consciousness and social anxiety associated with a person's persuasibility" (Crawford, 2005, p. 71). It is a widely used instrument that contains 20 items only, consists of short questions, and is available online free of charge. However, two items that measure feelings of inadequacy in the workplace (e.g. "How often do you feel confident that your success in your future job or career is assured?") were removed, as not all respondents were likely to be employed, and again it was needed in order to maintain the integrity of the constructed questionnaire, as it was imperative that all

respondents answer every item.

Revised Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (JFFIS)

The feeling of inadequacy variable was assessed using 18 items of the 20-item R-JFFIS. For each item, respondents indicate their agreement using a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (*very often*) to 5 (*very seldom*). Like Crawford (2005), the item order was randomised to control for response bias. For the positive items (2, 5, 7, 8, 10, 13, 15, 16, 18), the scores ranged from *very often* = 5 to *very seldom* = 1. For the negative items (1, 3, 4, 6, 9, 11, 12, 14, 17), the scores are reversed. The total summation ranges from 18 to 90, with a low score indicating high feelings of inadequacy. An example of an item from the R-JFFIS is "How often do you worry about whether other people like to be with you?" In two studies, Eagly (1967) reported split-half reliabilities of .72 and .88.

In their description of the assertive types, Hazelwood (2009) and Petherick and Turvey (2008) describe individuals who lack **empathy** but, more precisely, emotional empathy. It was decided to include a measure of empathy in the current study because empathy seems to play "an important role in social communication" and reflects how people "share basic emotions" which could be an important variable in the understanding of victimisation (Alloway et al., 2016, p. 438). Moreover, a lack of emotional empathy has been linked with antisocial personality disorders and, therefore, crime in general (Alloway et al., 2016). It was opted to measure empathy via the Multidimensional Emotional Empathy Scale (MDEES; Caruso & Mayer, 1998), because this scale measures emotional aspects of empathy and can be used by researchers interested in a general measure of emotional empathy. Additionally, it is a reasonably short scale, available online free of charge and is a reliable and valid measure of emotional empathy (Alloway et al., 2016).

Multidimensional Emotional Empathy Scale (MDEES)

The MDEES has 30 items, with Likert-style response options, rated from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). According to Caruso and Mayer (1998, p. 8), this scale uses six negatively-worded items (4, 9, 13, 16, 20, 27) in order to reduce response bias and in an attempt to "include positive as well as negative emotional situations". This scale comprises six subscales, namely: empathy suffering (11 items), positive sharing (5 items), responsive crying (3 items), emotional attention (4 items), feeling for others (4 items), and emotional contagion (3 items). To obtain the empathy score, the six negatively-worded items are first reverse-scored and then a total empathy score is computed by adding all 30 items, where a high score corresponds to high empathy. An example of an item from the MDEES is "I cry easily when watching a sad movie". This scale has a good internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of .88 (M=3.64; SD=0.48) (Alloway et al., 2016).

All together there were 11 personality traits that were extracted from the extant typologies and included in the questionnaire: self-esteem (10 items), self-efficacy (10 items), fear of rejection (18 items), fear of failure (11 items), reassurance seeking (8 items), social anxiety (20 items), impulsivity (23 items), anger (30 items), narcissism (16

items), feeling of inadequacy (18 items), and empathy (30 items). In total, the 11 personality traits variables contained 194 items.

The above sections of this chapter have detailed the process of delineating the common features of the seven types. In total, 24 variables were isolated with, in particular, 13 behavioural characteristics and 11 personality traits. Again, for each variable, an exhaustive search was made to find the most appropriate and available online scale to measure each component. Regarding the large number of variables, the designated scales had to be as short as possible in order to make the length of the full questionnaire reasonable. In total, this part of the questionnaire included a total of 440 items (246 items for behavioural characteristics and 194 items for personality traits). The main information about the 24 variables used to construct the questionnaire including the name of the scale, the number of items, and the report method, are summarised in Table 7.

Table 7

Name of the Scale, Number of Items and Method of Report for the 24 Variables Used to Construct the Questionnaire

Variable	Name of the Scale	Items	Report Method
Rage/Revenge	Revenge Planning Subscale of the Displaced Aggression Questionnaire (DAQ)	11	7 pt Likert
Aggression	Buss and Perry Aggression Questionnaire (BPAQ)	29	5 pt Likert
Domination	Henceforth Mark VI	14	Yes/No/?
Humiliation	Cumulative Humiliation Subscale (CHS) of the Humiliation Inventory	12	5 pt Likert
Sadism	Sadism Scale	20	Yes/No/?
Masochism	Masochism Scale	11	Yes/No
Projection	Projection Questionnaire	18	5 pt Likert
Antisocial	Subtypes of Antisocial Behavior Questionnaire (STAB)	32	5 pt Likert
Risky	Risk-Attitude Scale (DOSPERT)	15	5 pt Likert
Self-harm	Self-Harm Inventory (SHI)	22	Yes/No
Financial	Scale of Economic Abuse (SEA)	28	7 pt Likert
Self-defence	Items have been created	23	Yes/No
Strike-back	Items have been created	11	Yes/No
Self-esteem*	Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES)	10	4 pt Likert
Self-efficacy*	General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE)	10	4 pt Likert
Rejection	Anxiety Subscale of the Experience in Close Relationship Scale (ECR)	18	7 pt Likert
Failure	Subscales of the Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory Revised Form (PFAI-Modified)	11	5 pt Likert
Reassurance	Threat-Related Reassurance Seeking Scale (TRSS)	8	7 pt Likert
Social anxiety	Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS)	20	5 pt Likert
Impulsivity	Revised Dickman Impulsivity Inventory-short version (DII-short)	23	5 pt Likert
Anger	Anger Self-Report Questionnaire (ASR-30)	30	6 pt Likert
Narcissism	Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI-16)	16	Forced Choice
Inadequacy*	Revised Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (R-JFFIS)	18	5 pt Likert
Empathy*	Multidimensional Emotional Empathy Scale (MDEES)	30	5 pt Likert

Note. * Reverse Scale score – Lower the scores are more the respondent is dysfunctional for this scale.

The Instrument

The first part of the questionnaire was designed to obtain demographic information including gender, age, education, relationship status, longest relationship, number of children, living area, employment status, personal income, house income, religious affiliation, and ethnic group (see Appendix A). These demographic items were included to provide information about the differences and similarities between the subgroups in the population under scrutiny (Maxfield & Babbie, 2012). The questionnaire then included a question regarding victimisation: "What kind of crime have you been the victim of?" With five response categories: (1) domestic violence, (2) sexual assault, (3) stalking, (4) physical assault, and (5) polyvictimisation. This was a main filter question to validate the inclusion of participants in the study as they had to identify via self-report as a victim of one of these interpersonal violent offence categories. In total there was 13 demographic items.

The questionnaire also included the Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale (MC-SDS), in order to identify the extent to which the participants exhibited social desirability bias. Using this scale assessed the truthfulness of participants' responses and evaluated whether they were trying to misrepresent themselves in order to manage self-presentation (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). This was deemed particularly important in this study because it has been demonstrated that individuals who are completing questionnaires that assess their personality, temperament, or behaviours will portray themselves positively (Moss, 2008). The MC-SDS contains 33 items (Moss, 2008) and all items were incorporated into the present instrument.

A substantial component of the questionnaire included the items that related to the 24 subscales extracted from the existing typologies. The process of locating and evaluating the scales that matched the descriptors of the seven types is described in detail in the previous pages. As has been demonstrated, there were 440 items from the 24 scales, most of which comprised Likert style response categories (see Table 7). Some had to be tailored to fit with the specific victim emphasis of this study and also consideration had to be made to ensure that the questionnaire was as succinct as possible. In total, the survey questionnaire included 488 items with 440 of the main component of the questionnaire, plus 15 items for the demographics, and the 33 items of the MC-SDS.

It is conceded that the resulting questionnaire was lengthy, especially as it was designed to be delivered online. Due to the large number of items in the questionnaire, it was identified that the survey may suffer from mortality or attrition (Maxfield & Babbie, 2012; Thayer-Hart, 2010). To overcome mortality, a number of strategies were used. First, the format of the questionnaire was carefully considered. The front and back cover of the survey included the Bond University logo as well as the title of the survey in order to provide a positive first and final impression. The visual layout used was clean, simple and consistent throughout the survey in order to make it highly accessible for the respondents to work with and for the data entry process (Thayer-Hart, 2010). Indentation and white space were used to make it easy to navigate through sections of the survey (Maxfield & Babbie, 2012; Thayer-Hart, 2010). Second, a progress bar was provided in order to ensure the respondents received positive feedback about their progress (Thayer-Hart, 2010). Moreover, interactive and engaging question styles, such as rating scales and true/false format, was used throughout the questionnaire in order to keep the respondents active (Thayer-Hart, 2010). Finally, respondents were able to pause and return to the survey, as the online platform offered the possibility to complete a portion of a survey, save and return later to finish the rest complete it.

It is also conceded that the survey does not contain any questions about previous victimisation or prior offending, and as a cross-sectional study it is difficult therefore to determine if the characteristics were present before or as the result of victimisation. Indeed, there is established evidence that early victimisation or trauma can affect and transform the structure and function of an individual's brain, as well as impacting cognition and behaviours and therefore create long-term consequences (King, 2017).

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using SPSS Version 24. In order to commence the analysis, each answer to every item from each subscale for each participant was entered to SPSS by transferring the data from the online survey platform. The reverse items were recoded using SPSS. A final score for each subscale was then calculated. The data were screened for missing values. There were no missing values for the final sample because of specific exclusion criteria governing the present study. Any participants who did not complete the entire questionnaire were eliminated and none of their data were used. This was important given the nature of the research aims requiring that each participant addressed every

single question that comprised the scales otherwise the 24 criteria could not be analysed thwarting the integrity of the study.

A sample analysis was first conducted to obtain demographic information for the participants. The main demographic characteristics, sex, crime experienced, and age, were extracted in order to obtain an overall description of the sample and this is presented in the Results Chapter. Another step in the preliminary analysis was to access the nature of the sample by comparing the scores of the participants with normative samples when they were available. A normal distribution score was found for the following variables: self-esteem (Schmitt & Allik, 2005); self-efficacy (Schwarzer, 2014); social anxiety (LeBlanc et al., 2014); aggression (Gerevich, Bácskai, & Czobor, 2007); impulsivity (Adan et al., 2010); narcissism (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006); and antisocial behaviours (Burt & Donnellan, 2009). The comparison between the sample of the present study and the "normal" population was realised by comparing the mean value. For the scales where no normal distribution was found, the comparison was unable to be undertaken (see Results Chapter).

The first research aim, to advance a psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violent crime, was addressed using Principal Components Analysis (PCA). PCA was used to determine the degree to which behavioural characteristics and personality trait variables were related to one another and to determine whether these characteristics could be employed to develop a victim typology. PCA, such as Factor Analysis, is an Eigenvector based multivariate analysis. It is a very simple, non-parametric, and efficient method for representing correlated data. As stated by Shlens (2014, para. 1) it provides "a roadmap for how to reduce a complex data set to a lower dimension to reveal the sometimes hidden, simplified dynamics that often underlie it". PCA was chosen over Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA), even though they are often seen as interchangeable, because the variables were correlated with the purpose of reducing the data into a smaller number of components and to identify which of the variables loaded together in order to represent unique typology components (Suhr, 2005). According to Pallant (2013), the minimum amount of data for factor analysis was satisfied given the sample size of 160 with a number of at least five cases per variable.

To be able to use PCA, variables must be on comparable scales (Suhr, 2005). As displayed in Table 7 the subscales selected to construct the questionnaire utilised different

response format such as Yes/No, 7-point, 6-point, 5-point, and 4-point Likert scales and one forced choice. Therefore, scores were converted using McCall's *T* in order to be comparable. McCall's *T* was employed by calculating *Z* scores (*Z* = (Mean – Mean of 160) / *SD*) and then converting *Z* scores into McCall's *T* (*T*= 50 ± (*Z* * 10)) (Clark-Carter, 2005).

In order to determine the suitability of the data for PCA, the variables were assessed using the standardised McCall's *T*-scores or *MT* scores for each variable (Pallant, 2013). As all requirements were met, the 24 variables were subjected to PCA using SPSS 24. Seven components were extracted and a seven-factor psychological typology for victims was advanced. Based on the loadings on the types, and in order to take the analysis further, each of the respondent's answers to the questionnaire were scrutinised in order to classify them in the corresponding type. For each respondent, a score of low, medium, or high was attributed to each variable. Regarding their overall scores on each variable, they were classified into the seven-type typology. Some respondents presented characteristics of more than one type. However, for the purposes of analysis, the stronger type was attributed.

The second specific research aim of applying the types of the advanced psychological typology to a set of interpersonal violent offences was tested by using categorical regression and a series of χ^2 tests of association. In order to determine if there was a relationship between the crimes experienced by the sample and the 24 behavioural characteristics and personality traits variables, a Spearman's correlation was run. Before conducting any of these analyses, the assumptions relating to the study design were assessed (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Categorical regression was used to analyse the presence of a relationship between a crime category and type(s) of the victim typology. In order to determine the position of each relationship, the correlation between the crime category and the variables that loaded on each type were analysed. Those relationships that were shown to be substantial in the correlation analysis were subjected to a series of χ^2 2x2 tests of association. Chi-square test for association required categorical variables being dummy coded. The dummy coding is the process of creating dichotomous variables from categorical variables. Typology data and the crime-experienced data were recoded to provide variables that indicated the presence or absence of each characteristic. For instance, if a participant had self-reported domestic violence, it would be coded "Yes" for

DV and "No" for all of the other crimes. Similarly, if a participant was identified as a reassurance-oriented type (Type 1), that individual was coded "Yes" for Type 1 and "No" for the other six types. These Yes/No dichotomous variables were then subjected to χ^2 analysis.

The final step of the analysis, relating to the third research aim, to compare the refined psychological typology for victims with the extant typologies, was performed by comparing each type of the psychological typology for victims of violence with the four foundational typologies: the Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) typology; the Hazelwood (2009) typology; the Petherick and Turvey (2008) "behavioural-motivational" typology; and the Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) "victim motivational typology", in order to determine if victims and offenders are likely to share similar behavioural characteristics and personality traits.

Summary

This chapter provided an overview of the manner in which this research was conducted. First, it included details of the recruitment methods which were conducted via the social media platform of Facebook. A community page and paid advertising was enlisted to encourage possible participants to be involved in the study. There were 262 respondents but 13 did not fit the criteria and 89 failed to answer all of the relevant questions and thus were discarded leaving a final sample of 160 self-identified victims of the four specified crime types (domestic violence, sexual assault, stalking, and physical assault) and some who were victims of more than one of these. The chapter then documented the labour-intensive process of unpacking the seven types that comprise the foundational typologies and extracted the main behavioural characteristics and personality traits. The yielded 24 variables were then investigated to locate appropriate measurement scales that could be adopted in the survey instrument. The final questionnaire including demographic questions, a respondent bias check, and the 13 behavioural and 11 personality scales, totalled 488 items, mostly with Likert response options. The final section of this chapter described the three analytic procedures that were carried out on the data (PCA to elicit the factors; χ^2 tests of association between crime categories and types; and a comparison of the newly-developed victim typology against the four foundational ones). It provided details about why these procedures were selected above others and how they were executed on the dataset.

Chapter Four: Results

The first aim of this research project was to advance an empirical psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violent crime that focuses on behavioural characteristics and personality traits. Another aim was to apply the types of the advanced victim typology to a select set of interpersonal violent offence categories to determine if there are associations between specific crime categories and victim types. The final aim of this research was to refine the victim typology and compare it with the extant typologies, to examine if victims and offenders do share behavioural characteristics and personality traits.

This chapter describes the findings derived from the data analysis. First, it provides a statistical overview of the sample including demographics, reliability, normative sample, and specific features. Then, it presents the results of the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) that was used to advance the psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violent crimes. A seven-factor model was extracted from the PCA analysis and used to classify the crime victims into the developed typology. The second step in the analysis employed categorical regression and Chi-square 2x2 test of association to determine whether there were any associations between specific interpersonal offence categories and victim types. The final part of this chapter outlines the comparison undertaken for each type of the developed typology for victims of interpersonal violent crime with the four typologies from which it was derived.

Overview of the Sample

Information elicited from respondents included metrics about sex, age, level of education, relationship status, number of children, residence, employment status, personal and household income, religion, and ethnic backgrounds. These variables provide a comprehensive picture of the sample of 160 adult Australians who voluntarily took part in the online survey. In terms of the characteristics of the participants involved in the present study, there were more females (*n*=145) (see Table 8). This is not surprising

considering that males are less likely to report victimisation for a number of reasons (Bricknell, Boxall, & Andrevski, 2014), and given the gender differences in the use of social media and the way male and female inhabit cyberspace. Thirdly, it has been demonstrated that women are more likely to participate in online surveys (Curtin, Presser, & Singer, 2000; Moore & Tarnai, 2002; Singer, von Hoewyk, & Maher, 2000; Smith, 2008). As at June 2016, 95% of Australians maintained a Facebook profile (Sensis, 2016) and use by males (94%) and females (97%) did not differ significantly overall. However, usage patterns suggest that women use Facebook to connect with friends and others, share personal stories, and, on average, post 55% more on their walls than males, while men tend to use Facebook to gather information to build influence (Sensis, 2016).

The sample can be characterised as generally comprising younger adults with the majority of participants aged between 30 and 49 years (68%, *n*=109) or 18 and 29 years (26%, *n*=41), which is in concordance with the fact that people aged between 15 and 49 across all locations around Australia are likely to have a Facebook account (Sensis, 2016). Moreover, it has been stated that younger and middle-aged people are more likely to participate in online surveys than older people (Goyder, 1986; Moore & Tarnai, 2002). The sample also aligns with the victimisation rates with the highest number of victims in Australia being between the ages of 15 and 54 years (ABS, 2017) (see Table 8).

Regarding ethnicity, respondents self-described as Caucasian (90%, *n*=145) and Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islanders (4.5%, *n*=7). In the present study, 46% (*n*=73) of the sample were single/never married and 26% (*n*=42) were separated/divorced. With respect to occupation 42% (*n*=68) were unemployed or not able to work at the time of the survey, and this was underscored by the fact that 60% (*n*=96) of the respondents were earning under $29,000 in personal income, considered as low income in Australia (ABS, 2015). The respondents tended to live in suburban areas (63%, *n*=100), with children (59%, *n*=94). The features of the sample reflect the idea that all adults in the population do not have an equal chance of experiencing violent interpersonal crime (Johnson, 2004). Indeed, marital status, employment status, and personal income have been described as predictors of victimisation (Johnson, 2004).

Regarding the five main forms of victimisation focused on this research, domestic violence was the largest self-described category (40%, *n*=64), followed by sexual assault (23%; *n*=37), then physical assault (11%; *n*=18), and stalking (4%; *n*=6). The remaining

22% (*n*=35) of the sample were victims of two or more crimes (polyvictims). There were clear differences in patterns of victimisation according to gender. Males were more likely to be victims of physical assault (47%), domestic violence (33%), and sexual assault (20%), while females were more likely to be victims of domestic violence (41%), sexual assault (23%), and victims of more than one crime (22%). However, due to the small number of males that comprised the sample, further direct comparisons between males and females will not be undertaken (see Table 8).

Table 8

Overview of Sample by Gender, Age and Type of Victimisation (N=160)

		Male	**Female**	**Total**
		***n* (%)**	***n* (%)**	***n* (%)**
Age	18-29 years	5 (33)	36 (25)	41 (26)
	30-49 years	10 (67)	99 (68)	109 (68)
	50-64 years	0 (0)	8 (6)	8 (5)
	65+ years	0 (0)	2 (1)	2 (1)
Crime	Domestic Violence	5 (33)	59 (41)	64 (40)
	Sexual Assault	3 (20)	34 (23)	37 (23)
	Stalking	0 (0)	6 (4)	6 (4)
	Physical Assault	7 (47)	11 (8)	18 (11)
	Polyvictimisation	0 (0)	35 (22)	35 (22)
Total		15 (9)	145 (91)	160 (100)

It was important to assess the data set for reliability, in order to determine if each subscale was measuring the appropriate construct. To measure internal consistency, Cronbach's alphas were calculated for each of the 24 subscales of the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha reliability ranges between 0 and 1, with the closer to 1, "the greater the internal consistency" is (Gliem & Gliem, 2003, p. 87). According to George and Mallery (2003, p. 231), the following rule applies: "_>.9 – Excellent, _>.8 – Good, _>.7 – Acceptable, _>.6 – Questionable, _>.5 – Poor, and _<.5 – Unacceptable". In the present study, the values of Cronbach's alpha were "acceptable" to "very good" (Gliem & Gliem, 2003; see Table 9), with scores ranging from .756 to .969. A total of 17 variables had a Cronbach's alpha above .903.

Table 9

M*inimum and Maximum Score, Mean, Standard Deviation, Median, Mode and Cronbach's Alpha Values for the 24 Subscales Used in the Questionnaire (N=160*)

Variable	Minimum Score	Maximum Score	Mean (*SD*)	Median	Mode	Cronbach's α
Rage/Revenge	11	77	35.56 (19.27)	32	13	0.969
Aggression	29	119	76.15 (21.58)	77.5	62[b]	0.918
Domination	14	42	26.86 (7.79)	27	18	0.869
Humiliation	12	46	20.68 (6.74)	20	14	0.915
Sadism	0	16	1.58 (2.94)	0	0	0.89
Masochism	0	11	1.45 (2.71)	0	0	0.916
Projection	0	54	19.58 (12.19)	16	10	0.923
Antisocial	32	132	62.28 (22.30)	63.5	38	0.968
Risky	15	68	29.74 (13.06)	27.5	15[b]	0.918
Self-harm	0	20	7.80 (5.89)	6	2	0.903
Financial	18	130	65.49 (35.73)	56	28	0.976
Self-defence	0	19	11.11 (4.46)	11	13	0.788
Strike-back	0	11	7.04 (2.72)	7	6	0.765
Self-esteem*	2	30	16.73 (6.01)	16	18	0.925
Self-efficacy*	15	40	28.23 (5.33)	28	30	0.888
Rejection	18	122	72.75 (29.14)	74.5	96	0.963
Failure	-20	22	3.60 (9.76)	4	2	0.904
Reassurance	8	56	30.74 (14.14)	31.5	36	0.948
Social anxiety	1	79	41.19 (20.31)	40	28[b]	0.962
Impulsivity	38	99	70.53 (12.12)	69.5	78	0.814
Anger	48	173	103.94 (26.88)	103.5	101	0.923
Narcissism	0	13	2.51 (2.68)	1.5	0	0.756
Inadequacy*	20	90	58.58 (16.63)	58	58[b]	0.949
Empathy*	32	143	87.86 (20.71)	92	94	0.924

Note. *SD*=Standard Deviation; [b]=where multiple modes exist, the smallest value is shown; *=scale has been reversed scored.

In order to assess the behavioural characteristics and personality traits of the sample, a comparison of the scores of the participants of the study with normative samples, when they were available in the literature, was undertaken. Normative scores were found for the following seven variables: self-esteem (Schmitt & Allik, 2005), self-efficacy (Schwarzer, 2014), social anxiety (LeBlanc et al., 2014), aggression (Gerevich, Bácskai, & Czobor, 2007), impulsivity (Adan et al., 2010), narcissism (Ames et al., 2006), and antisocial behaviours (Burt & Donnellan, 2009) as demonstrated in Table 10. Despite variance in sample sizes, compositions, and locations where these studies were conducted, all normative samples, able to be sourced from the literature, provided an average score in the normal population to compare to this group of self-identified victims.

Table 10

Comparison on Seven Variables between "Normative" and the Present Study Samples Showing Mean and Standard Deviation

	Normal Scores			Present Study
Variable	Study	Sample	*M* (*SD*)	*M* (*SD*)
Aggression	Gerevich et al. (2007)	Hungarian adults (*N*=1200)	57.19 (14.89)	76.15 (21.58)
Antisocial behaviours	Burt & Donnellan (2009)	American university psychology students (*N*=400)	19.01 (5.85)	62.28 (22.23)
Self-esteem	Schmitt & Allik (2005)	Australian adults (*N*=485)	21.07 (5.15)	16.73 (6.01)
Self-efficacy	Schwarzer (2014)	American adults (*N*=1594)	29.48 (5.13)	28.23 (5.33)
Social anxiety	LeBlanc et al. (2014)	American outpatients with diagnosis of Social Anxiety Disorder (*N*=435)	41.86 (13.33)	41.19 (20.31)
Impulsivity	Adan et al. (2010)	Spanish university psychology students (*N*= 850)	31.65 (0.256)	70.53 (12.12)
Narcissism	Ames et al. (2006)	American university psychology students (*N*=776)	0.35 (5.85)	2.51 (2.68)

When compared with the normative samples, the 160 self-identified victims of interpersonal violent crimes, interesting inferences can be made. First, the sample respondents seem to align with the normative samples regarding level of self-efficacy and narcissism. However, regarding the two behavioural characteristics and two of the personality trait variables, the sample participants seem to be more aggressive, more likely to use antisocial behaviours, possess lower levels of self-esteem and be impulsive. Finally, the respondents had similar levels of social anxiety aligned with individuals diagnosed with social anxiety disorders. Therefore, in the context of the present study, the self-identified victims that completed the questionnaire were likely to be socially anxious, impulsive, and low in self-esteem and likely to use antisocial and aggressive behaviours.

A further step was undertaken to examine any specific features displayed by this sample of study participants. First, when looking at the crime experienced, 22% of the sample reported being victims of more than one crime, 40% reported being victims of domestic violence and 6% of stalking. As the literature suggests, it is likely that given the serial nature of offences, such as domestic violence and stalking, more than one incident will be observed (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012; Raj, 2017). It is recognised that, domestic violence incidents are "seldom isolated events, they often occur repeatedly, as part of a cycle of relationship violence" (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012, p.

1717). Thus, it is possible that a majority of the sample has been victim of one or more interpersonal violence incidents. Second, 30% of the respondents were likely to frequently binge drink and 22% were likely or very likely to buy illegal drugs for their own use. It is consistent with the statistics of the contribution of alcohol or other substances in interpersonal violent crime (ABS, 2017). Third, 15% of the respondents were likely or very likely to engage in sexual activity for money. As the international literature suggests, individuals involved in prostitution are among the most victimised groups in society (Mathews, 2015). Finally, approximately 30% of the sample presented very high levels of anger and aggression towards others. However, as inferred from the responses made by the respondents on the STAB, almost none reported offending behaviours per se, such as breaking into a store, mall, or warehouse, breaking the windows of an empty building, shoplifting things, littering in public areas by smashing bottles, tipping trash cans, stealing a bicycle, or other property for school or work or sold drugs.

Regarding the demographics as well as the main intrapersonal characteristics and behaviours of the sample, respondents of the present study were mostly Caucasian females aged 18 to 49. They were mostly single and living in low-income households. Regarding intrapersonal characteristics, they were likely to be socially anxious, with low self-esteem, and impulsive. Moreover, they were also likely to use antisocial behaviours, such as aggression, alcohol and drug abuse, and be sexually promiscuous. These characteristics seem to be in accordance with the existing literature on risk of victimisation.

Advancing a Typology for Victims of Violent Crimes

The first specific research aim was to advance an empirically-based psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violent crimes that focuses on behavioural characteristics and personality traits, derived from four existing typologies. PCA was conducted to determine the degree to which behavioural characteristics and personality trait variables were related to one another. Due to differences in response characteristics, scores were converted using McCall's *T* in order to be comparable. McCall's *T* was calculated by calculating *Z* scores (*Z* = (Mean – Mean of 160) / *SD*) and then converting *Z* scores into McCall's *T* (*T*= 50 ± (*Z* * 10)) (Clark-Carter, 2005). Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for a Factor Analysis was assessed. The inspection of the

correlation revealed the presence of many coefficients greater than .3 suggesting reasonable factorability. The KMO value was .803 and the Bartlett's test was significant (p< .001), further supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of five components with Eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining a total of 65.47% of the variance (see Table 11).

Table 11

Initial Eigenvalues and Percentage of Variance Explained by Each Component

Component	**Initial Eigenvalues**			**Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings**			**Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings**
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	5.986	24.944	24.944	5.986	24.944	24.944	5.352
2	4.765	19.856	44.8	4.765	19.856	44.8	4.052
3	2.361	9.836	54.635	2.361	9.836	54.635	3.299
4	1.507	6.281	60.916	1.507	6.281	60.916	2.174
5	1.094	4.558	65.473	1.094	4.558	65.473	2.058
6	0.91	3.793	69.266	0.91	3.793	69.266	1.426
7	0.873	3.638	72.904	0.873	3.638	72.904	3.162
8	0.825	3.436	76.34				
9	0.712	2.965	79.305				
10	0.616	2.568	81.873				
11	0.578	2.407	84.28				
12	0.509	2.122	86.402				
13	0.47	1.956	88.358				
14	0.436	1.816	90.174				
15	0.4	1.668	91.842				
16	0.36	1.498	93.341				
17	0.323	1.344	94.685				
18	0.237	0.987	95.671				
19	0.235	0.978	96.65				
20	0.196	0.817	97.467				
21	0.183	0.763	98.23				
22	0.172	0.715	98.945				
23	0.152	0.634	99.579				
24	0.101	0.421	100				

Catell's scree test suggests retaining a four-factor typology with a clear bend of the curve on component five (Pallant, 2013) as illustrated in Figure 5. The Scree plot four factor solution was further supported by the results of the Parallel Analysis (see Table 12). In this case, only four components were at a larger value than the criterion value from the Parallel Analysis (24 variables x 160 respondents).

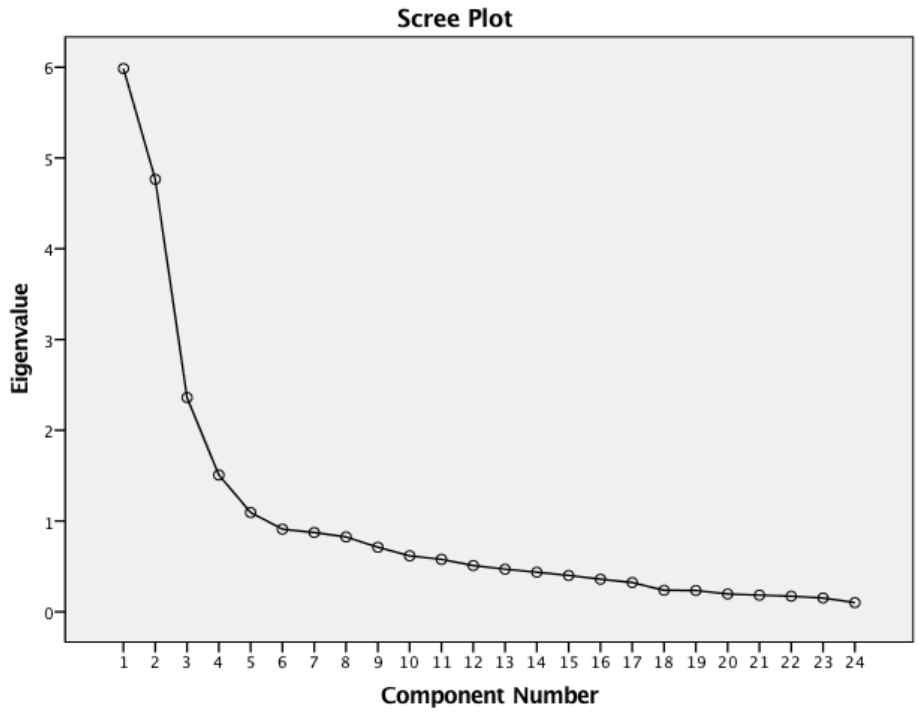

Figure 5. Scree Plot for the Principal Component Analysis of the 24 Variables.

Table 12

Monte Carlo PCA for Parallel Analysis

Component	Eigenvalues	Criterion Value	Standard Deviation
1	5.986	1.8085	0.070
2	4.765	1.6802	0.056
3	2.361	1.5813	0.046
4	1.507	1.4889	0.036
5	1.094	1.4117	0.038
6	0.910	1.3379	0.033
7	0.873	1.2730	0.031

However, as the existing typologies contain up to seven types, as shown in Table 4, a seven factor PCA was conducted in order to compare it with the four existing typologies selected from the literature. The seven components solution explained a total of 72.9% of the variance with the components explaining 24.9%, 19.9%, 9.8%, 6.3%, 4.6%, 3.8%, and 3.4% of the variance respectively (see Table 11). It can be difficult to name a component after extraction; therefore, the rotation of factors assists in this process (Pallant, 2013). The factor rotation "changes the pattern of the unrotated factors and increases the understanding of each factor, by presenting the pattern of loading in a manner that is easier to interpret and understand" (Pallant, 2013, p. 184). There are two types of rotation: orthogonal and oblique rotations. In orthogonal rotation, there is no correlation between the extracted factors (Pallant, 2013). Based on the literature, it was expected that victims would exhibit characteristics of more than one type and, therefore, oblique rotation was used. As observed by the analysis of the component correlation matrix, two components were moderately correlated (above 0.3), as can be seen in Table 13, which further supports the use of oblique rotation (Fabrigar & Wegener, 2011; Pallant, 2013). In oblique rotation, the results are Pattern Matrix and Structure Matrix (Table 14). The Pattern Matrix represents the unique load of the factor into the variables while the Structure Matrix comprises the correlations between the common factors and the variables (Pallant, 2013). Again, because it is expected that victims will exhibit characteristics of more than one type, the Structure Matrix was chosen to develop the seven-factor model (see Table 14).

Table 13

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1	1.000	0.155	0.171	0.163	0.068	-0.033	-0.370
2	0.155	1.000	0.159	-0.163	0.144	-0.128	0.170
3	0.171	0.159	1.000	-0.003	0.247	-0.165	0.036
4	0.163	-0.163	-0.003	1.000	-0.109	-0.080	-0.119
5	0.068	0.144	0.247	-0.109	1.000	-0.009	0.036
6	-0.033	-0.128	-0.165	-0.080	-0.009	1.000	-0.064
7	-0.370	0.170	0.036	-0.119	0.036	-0.064	1.000

Table 14

Loadings and Communalities of the 24 Variables

	Pattern Coefficients							Structure Coefficients							Communalities
	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	
Self-esteem	-0.831							-0.851						0.438	0.81
Projection	0.795					-0.426		0.727					-0.46		0.65
Rejection	0.786							0.785			0.332				0.683
Failure	0.755							0.783						-0.367	0.755
Social	0.631							0.751						-0.528	0.705
Inadequacy	0.611						-0.313	0.721						-0.533	0.671
Self-efficacy	-0.549						0.373	-0.694						0.562	0.808
Self-harm	0.545		0.393			-0.361		0.621		0.581			-0.453		0.789
Anger		0.828							0.848						0.775
Aggression		0.787				0.345			0.802						0.582
Rage/Revenge		0.731							0.755						0.816
Impulsivity		0.731							0.785		-0.324				0.62
Antisocial		0.526	0.434					0.302	0.617	0.565			-0.325		0.717
Masochism			0.939							0.927					0.606
Sadism			0.931							0.908					0.696
Risky		0.355	0.484			-0.376			0.476	0.635			-0.505		0.759
Empathy				0.848							0.859				0.691
Humiliation				-0.655					0.391		-0.704				0.844
Reassurance	0.375			0.382				0.586			0.451			-0.443	0.882
Strike-back					0.784							0.807			0.763
Self-defence					0.629	-0.307			0.443			0.692	-0.336		0.711
Finance		-0.441			0.621				-0.351			0.598	0.339		0.717
Narcissism							0.86		0.322					0.884	0.74
Domination							0.621	-0.454			-0.318			0.738	0.706

Table 15

The Seven Factors Model with Each Variable and Loading Scores

#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7
Self-esteem (-.851)	Anger (.848)	Masochism (.927)	Empathy (.859)	Strike-back (.807)	Risky (-.505)	Narcissism (.884)
Rejection (.785)	Aggression (.802)	Sadism (.908)	Humiliation (-.704)	Self-defence (.692)	Projection (-.460)	Domination (.738)
Failure (.783)	Impulsivity (.785)	Risky (.635)	Reassurance (.451)	Finance (.598)	Self-harm (-.453)	Self-efficacy (.562)
Social (.751)	Rage/Revenge (.755)	Self-harm (.581)	Rejection (.332)		Finance (.339)	Inadequacy (-.533)
Projection (.727)	Antisocial (.617)	Antisocial (.565)	Impulsivity (-.324)		Self-defence (-.336)	Social (-.528)
Inadequacy (.721)	Risky (.476)		Domination (-.318)		Antisocial (-.325)	Reassurance (-.443)
Self-efficacy (-.694)	Self-defence (.443)					Self-esteem (.438)
Self-harm (.621)	Humiliation (.391)					Failure (-.367)
Reassurance (.586)	Finance (-.351)					
Domination (-.454)	Narcissism (.322)					
Antisocial (.302)						

From the PCA, a seven-factor psychological typology for victims of violence, based on behavioural characteristics and personality traits, was derived. Each factor is described in the following section (see Table 15).

Factor 1. For the first factor, there were 11 variables loaded at .3 that related to low self-esteem and social incompetency. Individual loadings in this factor revealed low self-esteem and low self-efficacy, a fear of rejection and abandonment, a feeling of inadequacy and failure, and a need for reassurance. There were features of being socially anxious and of using projection as a coping mechanism. This factor suggests the likelihood of self-harm and antisocial behaviours and is comparable with the reassurance-oriented type found within the four typologies this study is based upon (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Hazelwoood, 2009; Petherick & Turvey, 2008; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Thus, the label, "Reassurance-oriented type", was retained.

Factor 2. For the second factor, there were 10 variables loaded at .3 or greater that related to aggressive and antisocial behaviours. This factor revealed high levels of anger, aggressiveness, rage/revenge, and impulsive behaviours. It also demonstrated high levels of antisocial and risky behaviours. Moreover, the features included narcissistic traits, use of humiliating behaviours, and self-defence against others. This factor parallels the anger-oriented type found within the aforementioned four typologies drawn upon in this study; thus, it was labelled "Anger-oriented type".

Factor 3. The third factor was comparable to the excitation type found within the four typologies this study is based upon. However, because this typology applied to victim psychology and behaviours, it was renamed. As will be further explained in Chapter 5, excitation refers primarily to sadistic behaviours, which need to be carefully applied to victims. Individuals in this group expressed sadomasochistic behaviours but were also likely to behave riskily and use antisocial behaviours and self-harm. Therefore, it was labelled "Risk-taking-oriented type".

Factor 4. There were six variables that loaded at .3 or greater onto Factor 4. Individuals who fitted this factor expressed a very high level of empathy, a need for reassurance, and fear of rejection. They were also characterised by a negative use of humiliating, impulsive, and dominating behaviours. Therefore, it was labelled "Submission-oriented type".

Factor 5. For the fifth factor, there were three variables loaded at .3 or greater. Individuals who fit this factor revealed high levels of self-defence and strike-back behaviours and were also individuals who experienced or are experiencing financial abuse. These individuals can be classified as high preservation. These preservation behaviours are mostly externally oriented; therefore, it was labelled "Self-preservation externally-oriented type".

Factor 6. Six variables loaded at .3 or greater onto Factor 6. This factor is characterised by expressed extreme self-preservation by avoiding any risky, antisocial, self-defence, and self-harm behaviours. Individuals who fit this factor were also likely to experience or were experiencing financial abuse. These preservation behaviours are mostly internally oriented; therefore, it was labelled "Self-preservation internally-oriented type".

Factor 7. Eight variables loaded at .3 or greater onto Factor 7 with the strong loading of narcissism and domination variables. Individuals who aligned with this factor were highly narcissistic and possessed dominating traits. They were also likely to possess a high level of self-esteem and self-efficacy. In contrast with Factor 1, they were socially competent and self-satisfied. This factor has similar characteristics with the assertive-oriented type found within the four typologies this study is based upon; therefore, it was labelled "Assertive-oriented type".

These seven factors, their labels, and their features are presented in Table 16. This initial representation of the psychological typology of victims of interpersonal violence presents a summarised and visual version of the main behavioural characteristics and personality traits associated with each type. This first iteration of the typology is compared with the four foundational typologies. However, it is already apparent that reassurance-oriented and submission-oriented type share three features: fear of rejection, need of reassurance, and low domination.

Table 16

Initial Version of the Psychological Typology of Victims of Interpersonal Violence

Reassurance-Oriented	**Anger-Oriented**	**Risk-Taking-Oriented**	**Submission-Oriented**	**Self-Preservation Externally-Oriented**	**Self-Preservation Internally-Oriented**	**Assertive-Oriented**
Low self-esteem	Anger	Masochism	Extreme empathy	Use of strike-back behaviours	Avoiding risky behaviours	Narcissistic
Fear of rejection	Aggression	Sadism	Need of reassurance	Use of self-defence behaviours	Use of projection	Use of Domination
Fear of failure	Impulsivity	Use of risky behaviours	Fear of rejection	Financially abused	Avoiding self-harm behaviours	High self-efficacy
Social anxiety	Rage/Revenge	Use of self-harm behaviours	Negative impulsivity		Financially abused	Feeling self-satisfied
Use of projection	Use of antisocial behaviours	Use of antisocial behaviours	Low domination		Avoiding the use of self-defence behaviours	Socially confident
Feeling of inadequacy	Use of risky behaviours		Negative use of humiliation		Avoiding antisocial behaviours	High self-esteem
Low self-efficacy	Use of self-defence behaviours					
Use of self-harm behaviours	Use of humiliation					
Need of reassurance	Less likely to suffer financial abuse					
Low domination	Narcissistic					
Use of antisocial behaviours						

Regarding the characteristics of the typology and in order to take the analysis further, data were scrutinised to determine the main behavioural characteristics and personality traits for each respondent in order to classify them in the corresponding type. For each respondent, a score of low, medium, or high was attributed to each variable. Regarding their scores, they were classified into the seven types. Some respondents presented characteristics of more than one type. However, for the purposes of analysis, the stronger type was attributed. The results indicated that of the 160 victims there were 24.4% "Reassurance-oriented" (*n*=39), 21.9% "Anger-oriented" (*n*=35), 15% "Risk-taking-oriented" (*n*=24), 7.5% "Submissive-oriented" (*n*=12), 8.7% "Self-preservation externally-oriented" (*n*=14), 9.4% "Self-preservation internally-oriented" (*n*=15), and 15.6% "Assertive-oriented" (*n*=25).

Applying the Victim Typology

In order to achieve the second research aim, which was to apply the types of the advanced psychological typology for victims to a set of interpersonal violent offences, participants were classified into five groups based on their self-report of offence category: domestic violence (DV) (n=64), sexual assault (SA) (n=37), stalking (ST) (n=6), physical assault (PA) (n=18), and victims of more than one type of crime, labelled as polyvictimisation (PV) (n=35). In order to determine if there was a relationship between the crimes experienced by the sample and the 24 behavioural characteristics and personality trait variables, a Spearman's correlation was utilised (see Table 17). Correlation analysis explains the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2013). Since the data representing the variables were not continuous, the use of a non-parametric tool was necessary; therefore, Spearman's rank order correlation was appropriate (Pallant, 2013). Preliminary analysis showed the relationships to be monotonic, as assessed by visual inspection of the scatterplots. Its interpretation is simple, as the closer rho is to ±1, the stronger the relation is (Pallant, 2013). The correlations relate the 24 psychological features with the crime experienced. A higher correlation means a higher relation between a variable and the crime type experienced. If the correlation was positive, it meant that the higher the score the variable was, the more likely it was associated with that offence category, while a negative correlation meant that the higher the score was on the variable, the less likely it was associated with that offence category. For the reversed score scales, a positive relationship meant that the

lower the score of the variable was, the more likely it was associated with that offence category, while a negative correlation meant that the lower the score was on the variable, the less likely it was associated with that offence category. A number of significant correlations were found (see Table 17).

Table 17

Results of Spearman's Correlation between the Type of Crime Experienced and the 24 Variables (N=160)

		DV	SA	ST	PA	PV
Rage	*rho*	-.329**	.215**	.109	.233**	-.057
	p	.000	.006	.170	.003	.473
Aggression	*rho*	-.209**	.102	-.161*	.292**	-.006
	p	.008	.199	.042	.000	.936
Domination	*rho*	.024	-.289**	-.113	.259**	.120
	p	.765	.000	.155	.001	.129
Humiliation	*rho*	-.002	.014	.029	.129	-.129
	p	.975	.862	.717	.104	.121
Sadism	*rho*	-.079	-.224**	-.072	.111	.271**
	p	.318	.004	.368	.163	.001
Masochism	*rho*	-.125	-.039	-.089	-.148	.341**
	p	.117	.626	.264	.062	.000
Projection	*rho*	-.104	.331**	-.072	-.203*	-.027
	p	.191	.000	.365	.010	.736
Antisocial	*rho*	-.465**	.214**	-.187*	.168*	.290**
	p	.000	.007	.018	.034	.000
Risky	*rho*	-.354**	.172*	-.176*	.137	.221**
	p	.000	.030	.026	.084	.005
Self-harm	*rho*	-.294**	.301**	-.104	-.199*	.241**
	p	.000	.000	.192	.012	.002
Finance	*rho*	.470**	-.379**	-.195*	-.345**	.183*
	p	.000	.000	.014	.000	.021
Self-defence	*rho*	-.183*	.058	-.195*	.061	.201*
	p	.020	.464	.013	.445	.011
Strike-back	*rho*	-.066	-.259**	-.210**	.134	.335**
	p	.410	.001	.008	.091	.000
Self-esteem !	*rho*	.120	-.264**	-.012	.188*	-.011
	p	.130	.001	.875	.017	.889
Self-efficacy !	*rho*	.207**	-.223**	-.075	.091	-.053
	p	.009	.005	.344	.251	.507
Rejection	*rho*	-.115	.264**	-.079	-.195*	.054
	p	.146	.001	.318	.013	.501
Failure	*rho*	-.069	.215**	.037	-.343**	.108
	p	.384	.006	.642	.000	.175
Reassurance	*rho*	-.246**	.222**	-.002	-.210**	.226**
	p	.002	.005	.979	.008	.004
Social anxiety	*rho*	-.105	.247**	.019	-.199*	.015
	p	.188	.002	.809	.012	.853
Impulsivity	*rho*	-.255**	.205**	-.096	.213**	-.025
	p	.001	.009	.228	.007	.755
Anger	*rho*	-.254**	.195*	-.118	.245**	-.031
	p	.001	.013	.138	.002	.693
Narcissism	*rho*	-.017	-.122	-.090	.256**	-.010
	p	.830	.125	.256	.001	.903
Inadequacy !	*rho*	-.138	.149	.141	-.156	.092
	p	.082	.059	.076	.062	.248
Empathy !	*rho*	.043	-.024	.080	-.143	.046
	p	.588	.766	.316	.071	.563

Note. != Reversed scales; *= *p* significant at the α=.05 level; **= *p* significant at the α=.001 level.

There was a moderate correlation between the offence category of domestic violence and the level of financial abuse experienced (*rho*(64)=.470, *p*<.001) and a weak positive correlation between domestic violence and a higher level of self-efficacy (*rho*(64)=.207, *p* =.009). There was a moderate negative correlation between domestic violence and antisocial behaviours (*rho*(64)=-.465, *p*<.001). There were weak negative correlations between the offence category of domestic violence and the use of risky behaviours (*rho*(64)=-.354, *p*<.001), rage (*rho*(64)=-.329, *p*<.001), use of self-harm (*rho(64)*=-.294, *p*<.001), impulsivity (*rho(64)*=-.255, *p*=.001), anger (*rho*(64)=-.254, *p*=.001), reassurance (*rho*(64)=-.246, *p*=.002), aggression (*rho*(64)=-.209, *p*=.008), and the use of self-defence behaviours (*rho*(64)=-.183, *p*=.020). Therefore, the crime category of domestic violence was associated with financial abuse and a high level of self-efficacy. On the other hand, the crime category of domestic violence was less likely to be associated with the use of antisocial, risky, self-harm, and self-defence behaviours, experiencing feelings of rage/revenge and anger, being impulsive and aggressive, and needing reassurance.

There were moderate positive correlations between the offence category of sexual assault and the use of projection (*rho(37)*=.331, *p*<.001) and self-harm behaviours (*rho(37)*=.301, *p*<.001). There were also weak positive correlations between sexual assault and fear of rejection (*rho(37)*=.264, *p*=.001), social anxiety (*rho(37)*=.247, *p* =.002), need of reassurance (*rho(37)*=.222, *p*=.005), rage (*rho(37)*=.215, *p*=.006), fear of failure (*rho(37)*=.215, *p*=.006), use of antisocial behaviours (*rho(37)*=.214, *p*=.007), and impulsivity (*rho(37)*=.205, *p*=.009). There were also very weak positive correlations between the offence category of sexual assault and anger (*rho(37)*=.195, *p*=.013) and the use of risky behaviours (*rho(37)*=.172, *p*=.030). There were weak negative correlations between sexual assault and self-esteem (*rho(37)*=-.264, *p*<.001) and self-efficacy (*rho(37)*=-.223, *p*=.005). There was a moderate negative correlation between the offence category of sexual assault and financial abuse (*rho(37)*=-.379, *p*<.001). Additionally, there were weak negative correlations between the offence category of sexual assault and domination (*rho(37)*=-.289, *p*<.001), use of strike-back behaviours (*rho(37)*=-.259, *p*=.001), and sadism (*rho(37)*=-.224, *p*=.004). Therefore, the crime category of sexual assault was likely to be associated with the use projection, the use of self-harm, antisocial, and risky behaviours, fear rejection and failure, being socially anxious, needing reassurance, experiencing feelings of rage/revenge and anger, being impulsive, and

having low levels of self-esteem and self-efficacy. On the other hand, the crime category of sexual assault was also less likely to be associated with financial abuse, use of domination, use of strike-back behaviours, and being sadistic.

There was a weak negative correlation between the offence category of stalking and the use of strike-back behaviours (*rho(6)*=-.210, *p*=.008). There were very weak negative correlations between stalking and level of financial abuse experienced (*rho*(6)=-.195, *p*=.014), the use of self-defence behaviours (*rho(6)*=-.195, *p*=.013), the use of antisocial (*rho(6)*=-.187, *p*=.018) and risky behaviours (*rho(6)*=-.176, *p*=.026), and aggression (*rho(6)*=-.161, *p*=.042). Therefore, the crime category of stalking was less likely to be associated with the use of strike-back, self-defence, antisocial and risky behaviours, financial abuse, and being aggressive.

There were weak positive correlations between the offence category of physical assault and aggression (*rho(18)*=.292, *p*<.001), domination (*rho(18)*=.259, *p*<.001), narcissism (*rho(18)*=.256, *p*=.001), anger (*rho(18)*=.242, *p*=.002), rage (*rho(18)*=.233, *p*=.003), and impulsivity (*rho(18)*=.213, *p*=.007). There were very weak positive correlations between having been a victim of physical assault and self-esteem (*rho(18)*=.188, *p*=.017) and the use of antisocial behaviours (*rho(18)*=.168, *p*=.034). There were moderate negative correlations between the offence category of physical assault and suffering from financial abuse (*rho(18)*=-.345, *p*<.001) and fear of failure (*rho(18)*=-.343, *p*<.001). There were also weak negative correlations between physical assault and need for reassurance (*rho(18)*=-.210, *p*=.008) and use of projection (*rho(18)*=-.203, *p*=.010). There were also very weak negative correlations between the offence category of physical assault and social anxiety (*rho(18)*=-.199, *p*=.012), the use of self-harm behaviours (*rho(18)*=-.199, *p*=.012), and fear of rejection (*rho(18)*=-.195, *p*=.013). Therefore, the offence category of physical assault was likely to be associated with aggressive behaviours, use of domination, narcissism, experiencing feelings of rage/revenge and anger, high self-esteem, and the use of antisocial behaviours. On the other hand, the crime category of physical assault was also less likely to be associated with financial abuse, fear of failure and rejection, use of projection, need for reassurance, being socially anxious, and using self-harm behaviours.

There were moderate positive correlations between polyvictimisation and masochism (*rho(35)*=.341, *p*<.001) and strike-back behaviours (*rho(35)*=.335, *p*<.001).

There were also weak positive correlations between polyvictimisation and antisocial behaviours (*rho(35)*=.290, *p*<.001), sadism (*rho(35)*=.271, *p*=.001), the use of self-harm behaviours (*rho(35)*=.241, *p*=.002), need of reassurance (*rho(35)*=.226, *p*=.004), the use of risky behaviours (*rho(35)*=.221, *p*=.005), the use of self-defence behaviours (*rho(35)*=.201, *p*=.011), and financial abuse (*rho(35)*=.183, *p*=.021). Therefore, polyvictimisation was likely to be associated with masochism and sadism, the use of strike-back, antisocial, self-harm, and self-defence behaviours, need for reassurance, and financial abuse.

The findings of the relationships (positive and negative) between the variables and the crime experienced are summarised in Table 18. The positive associations are abridged under the heading "More likely to be associated with" and the negative associations are abridged under the heading "Less likely to be associated with". For the four reversed variables, the association is inverse.

Table 18

Dominant Characteristics per Crime Experienced

Crime Experienced	More Likely to be associated with…	Less Likely to be associated with…
Domestic Violence	Financial abuse	Use of antisocial, risky, self-harm and self-defence behaviours.
	High self-efficacy	Feelings of rage/revenge and anger
		Impulsiveness
		Aggressive behaviours
		Need of reassurance
Sexual Assault	High projection	Financial abuse
	Use of self-harm, antisocial, and risky behaviours	Use of domination
	Social anxiety	Use of strike-back behaviours
	Need of reassurance	Sadism
	Feelings of rage/revenge and anger	
	Fear of failure and rejection	
	Impulsiveness	
	Low self-esteem and self-efficacy	
Stalking		Use of strike-back, antisocial, risky, and, self-defence behaviours.
		Financial abuse
		Aggressive behaviours
Physical Assault	Aggressive behaviours	Financial abuse
	Impulsiveness	
	Feelings of rage/revenge and anger	
	Use of domination	Fear of failure and rejection
	Be narcissistic	High projection
	High self-esteem	Need of reassurance
	Use antisocial and aggressive behaviours	Social anxiety
		Use of self-harm behaviours
Polyvictimisation	Sadomasochism	
	Use of strike-back, antisocial, risky, self-harm and self-defence behaviours	
	Need of reassurance	
	Financial abuse	

The Spearman's analysis provides an indication of the expected link between crime category and any type(s) of the new victim typology, and a number of key points have emerged. Domestic violence is likely to be associated with the "Self-preservation-oriented" type (suffer from financial abuse, and possess self-preservation characteristics). The crime category of sexual assault is more likely to be associated with the "Reassurance-oriented" (low self-esteem and self-efficacy, need of reassurance, fear of rejection, social anxiety) or "Anger-oriented" (impulsive, anger, feelings of rage/revenge) types. Physical assault is likely to be associated with "Anger-oriented" (aggression, impulsiveness, and anger) or "Assertive-oriented" (narcissism and use of domination)

types. Polyvictimisation seems to be associated with "Risk-taking-oriented" (sadomasochism, use of antisocial, and risky behaviours) or "Self-preservation externally-oriented" (financial abuse, use of strike-back and self-defence behaviours) types.

Regarding the crime category of stalking, only a few negative correlations were found and, therefore, could not match any types of the typology. This is possibly due to the small number of stalking only victims (n=6) which prevented further analysis from being conducted. The next step of the analysis used Chi-square 2x2 tests of association in order to statistically determine the position of the association between the crime category and the types of the advanced psychological typology. One statistical requirement of the Chi-square 2x2 test of association required expected frequency to be greater than 5 (Pallant, 2013).

The relationship between offence categories and the advanced psychological typology for victims was shown to be significant ($\chi^2(24)= 76.810$ $p < 0.001$). In order to determine the position of each relationship, the correlation between the crime experienced and the variables that loaded onto each type were analysed (as shown in Table 17). The relationships that were shown to be substantial in the correlation analysis were subjected to a series of Chi-square 2x2 tests of association. Chi-square test for association required changing categorical dummy variables into dichotomous variables. Typology data and the crime-experienced data were recoded to provide variables that indicated the presence or absence of the characteristic. For instance, if participants had reported domestic violence, it would be coded "Yes" for DV and "No" for all of the other crimes. Similarly, if participants were identified as "Reassurance-oriented" type, they were coded "Yes" for Type 1 and "No" for the other six types. These Yes/No dichotomous variables were then subjected to Chi-square analysis.

The crime category of domestic violence was shown to be significantly correlated with a number of "Self-preservation-oriented" variables (Types 5 and 6) as illustrated in Table 17. Therefore, Chi-square 2x2 tests of association were conducted between the crime category of domestic violence and Types 5 and 6. All expected cell frequencies were greater than five for Type 6. There was a statistically significant association between the "Self-preservation internally-oriented type" and the crime category of domestic violence ($\chi^2(1)=12.95$, $p<.001$) (see Table 19). However, a Chi-square 2x2 test of

association could not be conducted between the crime category of domestic violence and Type 5 as all expected cell frequencies were not greater than five.

Table 19

χ^2 and p Value of Each χ^2 2x2 Test of Association for Each Type of the Typology with Each Crime Category

		Type 1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 4	Type 5	Type 6	Type 7
DV	χ^2						12.95	
	p						<.001**	
SA	χ^2	2.387	14.537					
	p	0.122	<.001**					
ST	χ^2							
	p							
PA	χ^2		7.625					
	p		0.006*					
PV	χ^2		10.959	11.204		5.412		
	p		.001**	.001**		.020*		

Note. *= *p* significant at the α=.05 level; **= *p* significant at the α=.001
Types= 1. Reassurance, 2. Anger, 3. Risk-taking; 4. Submission; 5. Self-preservation externally-oriented; 6. Self-preservation internally-oriented 7. Assertive

The crime category of sexual assault was shown to be significantly correlated with a number of "Reassurance-oriented" and "Anger-oriented" variables (see Table 17). Therefore, Chi-square 2x2 tests of association were conducted between having been a victim of sexual assault and Type 1 and Type 2. All expected cell frequencies were greater than 5. There was a statistically significant association between the "Anger-oriented type" and the crime category of sexual assault ($\chi^2(1)=14.537$, $p<.001$). However, there was no statistically significant relationship between the "Reassurance-oriented" type and the crime category of sexual assault (see Table 19).

Physical assault was shown to be significantly correlated with a number of "Anger-oriented" (Type 2) and "Assertive-oriented" (Type 7) variables (see Table 17). The Chi-square 2x2 tests of association were conducted between the crime category of physical assault and Type 2 and Type 7. All expected cell frequencies were greater than 5 for Type 2. There was a statistically significant association between the "Anger-oriented type" and the crime category of physical assault ($\chi^2(1)=7.625$, $p=.006$) (Table 19). However, a Chi-square 2x2 test of association could not be conducted between the "Assertive-oriented" type and physical assault as all expected cell frequencies were not greater than 5.

Polyvictimisation was shown to be significantly correlated with some of the "Anger-oriented" (Type 2), "Risk-taking-oriented" (Type 3), and "Self-preservation externally-oriented" (Type 5) variables (Table 17). The Chi-square 2x2 tests of association were conducted between polyvictimisation and Types 2, 3, and 5. All expected cell frequencies were greater than 5. There were statistically significant associations between the "Anger-oriented" (χ^2 (1)=10.959, p<.001), "Risk-taking-oriented" (χ^2 (1)=11.204, p<.001), and the "Self-preservation externally-oriented" types (χ^2 (1)=5.412, p=.020) and polyvictimisation (see Table 19).

To sum up, there was only a small number of significant associations between the crime category and the seven types that comprise the advanced psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violence. The main reason seems to be inherent to the sample size and the number of crime categories investigated in the present study. This will be further discussed in Chapter 5. However, six significant associations have been found and seem important in regard to the use of the developed typology. First, it is suggested that domestic violence is more likely to be associated with the "Self-preservation internally-oriented" type. The crime categories of sexual assault or physical assault are more likely to be associated with the "Anger-oriented" type. Polyvictimisation is more likely to be associated with the "Anger-oriented", "Risk-taking-oriented", or the "Self-preservation externally-oriented" types. There was no statistical association found for the crime category of stalking and no association for the "Reassurance-oriented" and "Submission-oriented" types. These findings are summarised in Figure 6 and will be elaborated upon in the next chapter.

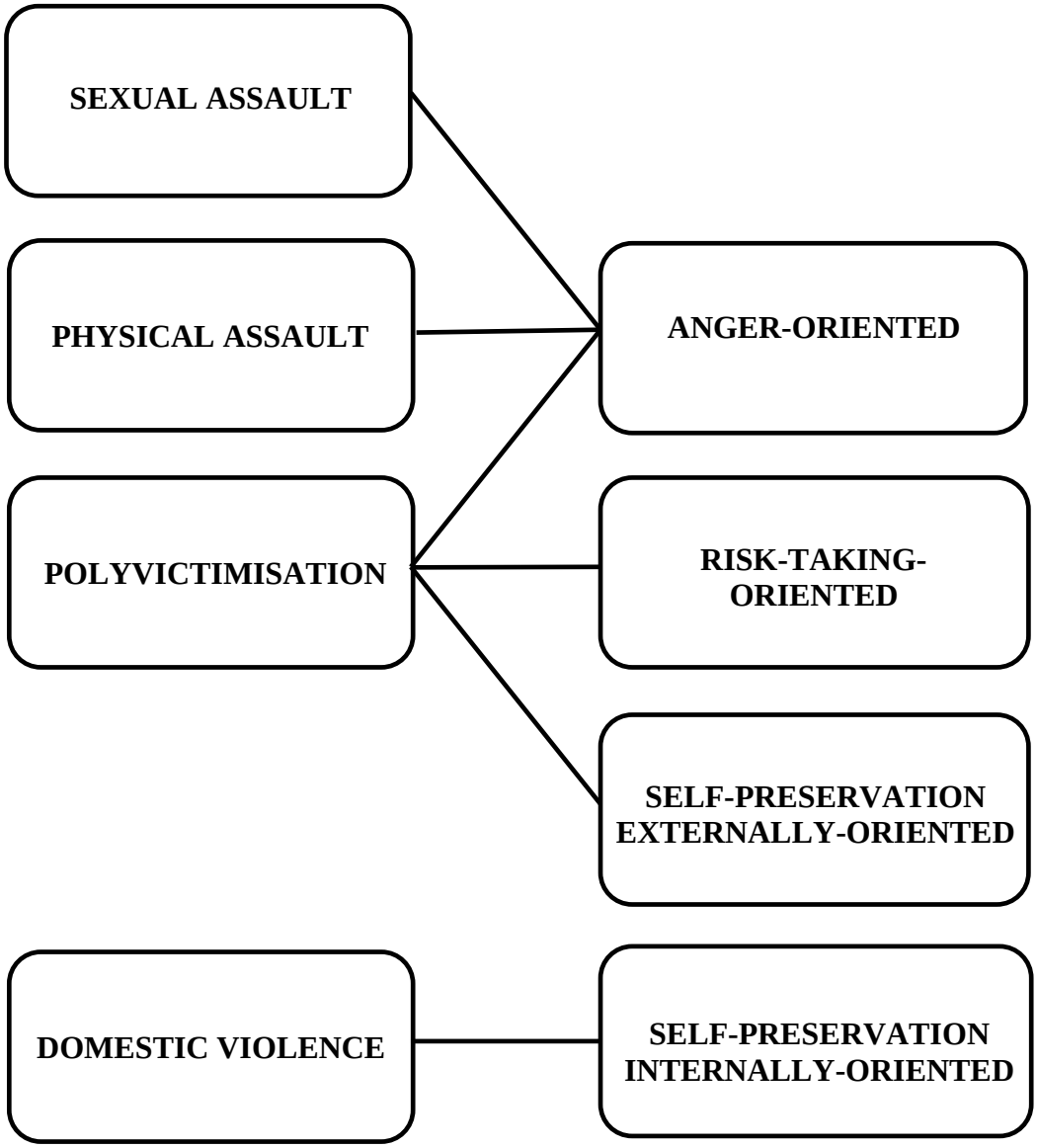

Figure 6. Chi-Square Tests Revealed Six Associations between Four of the Crime Categories and Four of the Types.

Refining and Comparing the Victim Typology

In this section of the Results Chapter, the third research aim, refining and comparing the victim typology with the four extant typologies, will be addressed. First, a refinement of the typology based on the loadings will be undertaken. Then, each type is compared with the extant four typologies in order to highlight the similarities and differences, based on behavioural characteristics and personality traits, of the refined psychological victim typology and the other four from which it is derived.

The reassurance-oriented type, identified in the PCA of the seven-factor model of victim characteristics, represented 24.4% of the sample. The reassurance-oriented type of the seven-factor model was characterised by low self-esteem and low self-efficacy, a fear of rejection and abandonment, a feeling of inadequacy and failure, and a need for reassurance. There were features of being socially anxious and of using projection as a coping mechanism. It was also characterised by the use of self-harm and antisocial behaviours.

Regarding the loadings of the submission-oriented type, the fact that it shared 3 of its 5 loadings with the reassurance-oriented type, and the fact that it was the least represented type of the typology (7.5%), it was decided to merge reassurance-oriented type and submission-oriented type as one group of individuals called “Reassurance-oriented victims” representing a total of 31.9% of all of the sample. Indeed, the submission-oriented type of the seven-factor model was characterised by a high level of empathy, a need for reassurance, and a high level of fear of rejection and abandonment. Individuals who loaded in this type also scored very low on behaviours associated with a need for humiliating others, impulsivity, and domination.

Thus, after combining both types, the reassurance-oriented victims were characterised by low self-esteem, poor self-efficacy, feelings of inadequacy, poor social skills, and antisocial behaviours and used projection as a defence mechanism. Reassurance oriented victims were also characteristically high in fear of rejection and abandonment, fear of failure, and a high need for reassurance. Reassurance-oriented victims were also more likely to have high levels of empathy and engage in self-harming behaviours. They were also likely to score very low on behaviours associated with a need for humiliating others, impulsivity, and domination.

The reassurance-oriented victim type of the present study is consistent with the types of other typologies: the power reassurance type described by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977), Hazelwood (2009), and Petherick and Turvey (2008) and the reassurance-oriented victim type described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) as indicated in Table 20.

Table 20

Comparison of the Reassurance-Oriented Victim Type Variables with the Four Extant Typologies

	Victim typologies		**Offender typologies**		
	Refined Typology for Victims of Violence	Petherick & Sinnamon (2014)	Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom (1977)	Hazelwood (2009)	Petherick & Turvey (2008)
Self-esteem	×	×	×	×	×
Fear of rejection	✓	✓	✓		✓
Fear of failure	✓	✓			✓
Problems in social interactions	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Projection	✓				✓
Self-efficacy	×	×	×		×
Self-harm	✓				✓
Need of reassurance	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Submissiveness	✓	✓			
Antisocial behaviours	✓				
Empathy	✓				
Use of humiliation	×				
Impulsivity	×				

Note. High level= ✓; Low Level = ×

A common key component of all of these reassurance-oriented types is low self-esteem. All of the existing typologies concur that the main reason behind the behaviours and traits of the reassurance-oriented individuals is to restore or reinforce their self-worth. Those characterised as reassurance-oriented feel inadequate, need reassurance, and tend to engage in inappropriate social interactions. Another characteristic, which is common amongst all of the reassurance-oriented types, is the fear of rejection. Reassurance-oriented victims are described as willing to accept any abuse because the personal physical cost is less than the emotional cost of being rejected (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). In contrast, in the offender typologies, the power reassurance type engages with others in a way that removes the possibility of rejection (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Petherick & Turvey, 2008; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014).

The reassurance-oriented type of the newly developed victim typology is most similar to the Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) reassurance-oriented type because they both share all of the described characteristics as well as two additional characteristics: fear of failure and submissiveness. The passive and submissive nature of this type is likely to underscore the motivations that lead to precipitative behaviours. The reassurance-oriented type is also associated with four variables not identified in the corresponding types of other typologies: increased risk of self-harm, characteristic antisocial behaviours, the use of projection as a defence mechanism, and extreme empathy. This is not unexpected as all three variables (risk of self-harm, antisocial behaviours, and use of projection) are characteristically expressed as maladaptive coping mechanisms to reinforce, protect, or restore an individuals' self-esteem, or to mitigate the negative emotional reactions associated with low self-worth (Dombeck, 2004; Grohol, 2013). Regarding empathy, it has been stated that, overwhelming, empathy could also result in co-dependency (Vaknin, 2015). Co-dependents are often described as needy, demanding, submissive, and suffering from abandonment anxiety, which in accordance with the description of reassurance-oriented victims (Malloy & Berkery, 1993; Vaknin, 2015). To sum up, the reassurance-oriented victim type is characterised by individuals who are likely to be submissive with low self-esteem; feel inadequate, which leads them to fear rejection; and perform poorly socially.

The "Anger-oriented victim type", identified in the PCA of the seven-factor model of victim characteristics, represented 21.9% of the sample and is characterised by a high level of anger and aggression. Victims that presented with the characteristics of the anger-oriented type were more likely to be impulsive, driven by rage and revenge, be characteristically antisocial, and to actively engage in high-risk behaviours. They were also likely to score high in self-defensiveness and narcissism, and were likely to actively seek to humiliate others as a means of preserving their self-image. The self-absorbed and aggressive focus of these victims means that they were substantially less likely to suffer from financial abusive circumstances. As the name suggests, the results showed anger as a key component of this victim type, a characteristic that is consistent with existing typologies such as the anger-retaliatory type described by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977), Hazelwood (2009), and Petherick and Turvey (2008) and the anger-retaliatory victim type described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) (see Table 21).

Table 21

Comparison of the Anger-Oriented Victim Type Variables with the Four Extant Typologies

	Victim typologies		**Offender typologies**		
	Refined Typology for Victims of Violence	Petherick & Sinnamon (2014)	Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom (1977)	Hazelwood (2009)	Petherick & Turvey (2008)
Anger	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Aggression	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Impulsivity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Rage/Revenge	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Antisocial behaviours	✓				✓
Risky behaviours	✓				✓
Self-defence	✓				
Humiliation	✓		✓	✓	✓
Narcissism	✓				
Projection		✓			✓
Feeling of inadequacy		✓			
Fear of failure		✓			
Financial abuse	×				

Note: High level= ✓; Low Level = ×

Across the existing typologies, both victim and offender behaviours appear to result from anger either towards individuals, groups, or organisations because of cumulative real or perceived wrongs. All anger types described in all typologies are also consistent in their assertion that because this type is driven by anger, they are likely to act impulsively and aggressively, and seek revenge when wronged – whether actual or perceived. While all typologies show the anger-oriented type characterised by aggression and a tendency to use humiliation of others as an ego-restoring tactic, the anger type in the refined typology is perhaps most similar to that espoused by Petherick and Turvey (2008), as they uniquely highlight the additional likelihood of this type engaging in antisocial and high-risk behaviours. The anger-oriented type identified in the present study includes two variables not previously identified in any of the previous models: self-defence behaviours and narcissism. In any situation, where self-integrity is threatened, people are motivated to repair it; this motivation can lead to defensive responses (Sherman & Cohen, 2006). These defence mechanisms can be automatic and unconscious in nature, and when they are characterised by "fight" rather than "flight" responses, are often linked with impulsivity and aggression (Tucker-Ladd, 2004). This, in turn, can result in precipitative behaviours. For instance, an individual can be harmed as a result of a conflict where he/she impulsively attacks another individual without considering all the variables, such as size difference, the presence of a weapon, some other environmental

variables, or situational factors in the crime event. When anger and narcissism combine, the result can be narcissistic rage that becomes directed at others (Krizan & Johar, 2015). To sum up, anger-oriented victims are more likely to be angry, impulsive, and aggressive individuals driven by rage and revenge.

The "Assertive-oriented victim type", revealed in the present study, represented 15.6% of the sample. Victims who fitted into the assertive-oriented type were highly narcissistic, had a high level of self-esteem and self-efficacy, and were highly dominating and authoritarian. These victims were also correspondingly low in feelings of inadequacy, need for reassurance, fear of failure, and need for social interaction. The assertive-oriented type of the present study is in some points consistent with the power assertive type described by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977), Hazelwood (2009), and Petherick and Turvey (2008) and the assertive-oriented victim type described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) (see Table 22). In all of the typologies, a key component is domination.

Table 22

Comparison of the Assertive-Oriented Victim Type Variables with the Four Extant Typologies

	Victim typologies		**Offender typologies**		
	Refined Typology for Victims of Violence	Petherick & Sinnamon (2014)	Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom (1977)	Hazelwood (2009)	Petherick & Turvey (2008)
Narcissism	✓	✓			✓
Domination	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Self-efficacy	✓				
Self-esteem	✓	×	×		×
Feeling of inadequacy	×		✓		
Problems in social interactions	×		✓		
Need of reassurance	×				
Fear of failure	×				
Fear of rejection			✓		
Aggression		✓	✓	✓	✓
Empathy				×	×
Impulsivity		✓		✓	✓

Note. High level= ✓; Low Level = ×

In a similar vein to Petherick and Turvey (2008) and Petherick and Sinnamon's (2014) assertive types, the assertive-oriented type of the present refined typology is characterised by a high degree of narcissism. Narcissistic individuals are characterised by a "grandiose self-concept, feelings of superiority, self-centeredness, and sense of entitlement" (Orth et al., 2015, p. 134). In accord with this definition, narcissism was

found to be negatively correlated with feelings of inadequacy, need for reassurance, social interactions, and fear of failure. However, in the extant typologies, the term, assertive, may have been misapplied. Assertiveness is the quality of "being able to make overtures to other people, to stand up for oneself in a nonaggressive way" (Marano, 2014, para. 4). In the four typologies that comprise an assertive-type, aggressive behaviours are also present, which seems inconsistent with the definition of assertiveness. The assertive-oriented victim type of the current study was not linked with aggression; therefore, it was more appropriate to use the term, assertion. That is the reason why the term assertiveness was retained, as it accords the features of this type refined typology.

The "Risk-taking-oriented victim" type identified in the PCA of the seven-factor model of victim characteristics represented 15% of the sample. To obtain such a substantial subgroup in the sample was unexpected as the proportion of excitation-oriented offenders and victims has been described as comparatively small in each of the four typologies (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Hazelwood, 2009; Petherick & Ferguson, 2012; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). However, the prevalence of sexually sadistic crimes is open to contention in the literature with percentages ranging from 5% (Groth & Birnbaum, 1979) to 80% (MacCulloch et al., 1983). The risk-taking-oriented victims scored highly in masochistic and sadistic traits and were very likely to engage in high-risk, antisocial, and self-harming behaviours. The risk-taking-oriented victim type of the present typology presents similarities with the "excitation type" found in the literature; however, because this typology is victim centred, differences can be observed (see Table 23).

Table 23

Comparison of the Risk-Taking-Oriented Victim Type Variables with the Four Extant Typologies

	Victim typologies		**Offender typologies**		
	New Typology for Victims of Violence	Petherick & Sinnamon (2014)	Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom (1977)	Hazelwood (2009)	Petherick & Turvey (2008)
Masochism	✓	✓			
Sadism	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Risky behaviours	✓				
Self-harm	✓	✓			
Antisocial behaviours	✓				
Aggression			✓	✓	✓
Domination			✓	✓	✓
Humiliation			✓	✓	

Note. High level= ✓; Low Level = ×

In the four extant typologies, the anger-excitation type described by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstrom (1977) and Hazelwood (2009), the sadistic type described by Petherick and Turvey (2008), and the excitation-oriented type described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014), the key component is sadism. It is very difficult to compare the risk-taking-oriented type of the refined typology with the excitation types of other typologies, because excitation behaviours are related to sadism, an act that requires at least two individuals (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012). The use of sadism appears to be different for victims and offenders. Offenders described as sadist, which include "an individual who experiences sexual gratification from the pain and suffering of another" (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 417), are often sexually driven. On the other hand, victims who can engage in sadistic behaviours may not exclusively be sexually aroused. As stated by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014, p. 417), a slight adjustment has to be made in order to make sense of this type when applied to victim behaviours and personality:

> While engaging in this behaviour may increase the chance for victimization, characterizing this type only as one where sexual gratification is at play may be problematic. To be able to adapt this victim behaviour, it is therefore necessary to slightly modify the main theme of the behaviour in terms of the needs served.

Overall, the risk-taking-oriented victim type of the present study is consistent with the excitation-oriented victim type described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014). However, because the term excitation is not appropriate to describe victim behaviours, it was decided to rename this type. Both typologies include, masochism, sadism, and self-harm as the main variables that characterise this type. Unique to the present typology, risky and antisocial behaviours were identified as characteristics of the risk-taking-oriented type, which made the choice of name for this type clear.

The risk-taking oriented type is likely to engage in sadomasochistic behaviours, which will increase risk of victimisation. For instance, victims may engage in a sadomasochistic activity in which whipping, burning, stabbing, or other behaviour is consensual and turns to victimisation. Another example is hypoxyphilia, which is described as a dangerous and fatal practice, which consists of deliberately cutting off the airflow supply, through mechanical or chemical means, to induce mild cerebral hypoxia for sexual gratification (Medical Dictionary, 2009).

However, unique to the present typology, sadism and masochism are not the only loadings. Individuals who fit this type were likely to engage in risky and antisocial

behaviours which will increase their risk of victimisation. Some individuals find risky activity or the engagement in antisocial behaviours rewarding or enjoyable (Katz, 1988; Walters, 1990). However, not everyone is equally attracted to risk taking, pursuit of excitement, which is a psychological dimension peculiar to every individual (Wood et al., 1995).

Regarding the fact that the main difference between the "Self-preservation externally-oriented" and the "Self-preservation externally-oriented" is in the way individuals focus their behaviours on restoring balance (either externally or internally), it was decided to merge Type 5 (8.7%) and Type 6 (9.4%), under a general "Self-preservation-oriented victim" type divided in two-subtypes: externally-oriented and internally-oriented. Self-preservation is a survival instinct; it can result in a variety of scenarios in which self-preservation behaviours can be described as passive or active. Passive behaviours allow the individual to become a victim, while active behaviours characterise any situation where the victims retaliate for perceived wrong and, therefore, increase their risk of harm.

The main characteristic of the individuals categorised in the self-preservation externally-oriented subtype was the high degree to which they engage in strike-back behaviours. They also characteristically strived to regain control and/or balance. These victims also showed a substantial level of engagement in high-risk behaviours, experiences of financial abuse, and dependence. The self-preservation internally-oriented subtype was characterised by engaging in behaviours designed to protect the self or other loved ones (e.g. children). The internally-oriented victims appeared to experience financial abuse. Correspondingly, these victims show an aversion to projection, physical self-defence behaviours, high-risk behaviours (e.g. drugs, sex), self-harming behaviours, and social-isolation, or other antisocial behavioural practices.

This current type is not comparable with any of the offenders typologies as none described a self-preservation form of psychological need that applied to offenders. However, it is comparable with the self-preservation oriented type, as well as some characteristics of the materially oriented type described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) as presented in Table 24.

Table 24

Comparison of the Self-Preservation-Oriented Victim Type Variables with Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) Types

	Victim typologies		
	Refined Typology for Victims of Violence	Petherick & Sinnamon (2014)	
		"Materially-oriented"	"Self-Preservation-oriented"
Strike-back behaviours	✓		✓
Self-defence behaviours	✓		✓
Financial abuse	✓	✓	
Risky behaviours	×	✓	×
Antisocial behaviours	×	✓	×
Use of projection	×		
Self-harm	×	✓	

Note. High level= ✓; Low Level = ×

As described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014, p. 418), victims who fit in the self-preservation-oriented type were likely to either use strike-back and self-defence behaviours or be highly passive in order to protect their homeostasis. Individuals who use strike-back and self-defence behaviours do so to "restore some kind of imbalance of power, especially in situations where their own lives, or the life of another (usually in their care) is threatened" (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 418). The other group of individuals that fit the self-preservation victim type are likely to preserve themselves by not taking any risks and acting passively. Individuals who are characterised by the use of passive behaviours are likely to remain in the abusive or threatening situation because it is safer than fighting back or leaving; this almost guarantees harm or loss. They are also more likely to suffer from financial abuse, and it is compatible with the description of the "materially-oriented victims" type described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014, p. 418), as it describes a victim who "stays with a controlling partner because they cannot afford to survive on their own, among others".

In light of all the findings explained above, and their relationship to the previous works in this area, several conclusions can be drawn. First, the four foundational types developed by Groth, Burgess, and Holmstron (1977) (i.e. power reassurance, power assertive, anger retaliation, and anger excitation) were all observed in an empirical study sample of crime victims (namely, reassurance-oriented, assertive-oriented, anger-oriented, and risk-taking-oriented). Another strength of this comparison is that these four types were the most represented in the present study with, respectively, 24.4% (*n*=35) for

the reassurance-oriented type, 22% (*n*=35) for the anger-oriented type, 15.5% (*n*=25) for the assertive-oriented type, and 15% (*n*=24) for the risk-taking-oriented type (as analogised with the anger excitation). Another type, the self-preservation-oriented type (externally or internally) is a combination of the self-preservation-oriented type and materially-oriented type described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) (see Table 25).

Table 25

Comparison of the Refined Psychological Typology of Victims of Violence with the Different Types of the Main Psychological Typologies of Victim and Offenders

Refined Typology for Victims of Violence (5 types)	**Petherick & Sinnamon (2014) (7 Types)**	**Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom (1977) (4 types)**	**Hazelwood (2009) (6 types)**	**Petherick & Turvey (2008) (5 types)**
Reassurance-Oriented	Reassurance-Oriented	Power Reassurance	Power Reassurance	Power Reassurance
Assertive-Oriented	Assertive-Oriented	Power Assertive	Power Assertive	Power Assertive
Anger-Oriented	Anger-Retaliatory	Anger Retaliation	Anger Retaliation	Anger Retaliatory
Risk-Taking-Oriented	Excitation-Oriented	Anger Excitation	Anger Excitation	Anger Excitation
Self-Preservation-Oriented	Self-Preservation-Oriented			
	Materially-Oriented			Material Gain
	Pervasively-Oriented			

These results would imply that offenders and victims share similar psychological characteristics that can be explained internally, such as low self-esteem, anger, risk-taking, and assertiveness. It also highlights that the new type added in the "victim motivational typology" by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) was pertinent, as it represents the fifth type of the refined psychological typology for victims. The first empirically based, psychological typology of victims of interpersonal violence is presented in Table 26. It includes a presentation of the five main types, as well as two subtypes, and provides the main variables associated under each type.

Table 26

An Empirically Based Psychological Typology of Victims of Interpersonal Violence

Reassurance-Oriented	**Anger-Oriented**	**Assertive-Oriented**	**Risk-Taking-Oriented**	**Self-Preservation**	
				Externally-Oriented	**Internally-Oriented**
Low self-esteem	Anger	Narcissistic	Masochism	Using strike-back behaviours	Avoiding risk
Fear of rejection	Aggression	Use of Domination	Sadism	Using self-defence behaviours	Use of projection
Fear of failure	Impulsivity	High self-efficacy	Risky behaviours	Financially abused	Avoiding self-harm
Social anxiety	Rage/Revenge	Feeling self-satisfied	Self-harm		Financially abuse
Use of projection	Use of antisocial behaviours	Socially confident	Antisocial behaviours		Avoiding the use of self-defence behaviours
Feeling of inadequacy	Risky behaviours	High self-esteem			Avoiding antisocial behaviours
Low self-efficacy	Self-defence				
Use of self-harm behaviours	Use of humiliation				
Need of reassurance	Less likely to suffer financial abuse				
Submission	Narcissistic				
Extreme empathy					

Summary

A total of 160 self-identified victims of interpersonal violent crime formed the basis of the present empirically based study. In terms of the characteristics of the participants involved in the current research, the majority were Caucasian females aged 18 to 49, more likely to be single, and living in low-income households. Regarding intrapersonal characteristics, the present sample was, overall, impulsive, socially anxious, with low self-esteem. They were also likely to use antisocial behaviours, such as aggression and substance abuse.

In order to achieve the first specific research aim, PCA on the 24 behavioural characteristics and personality trait variables was conducted and a victim typology was advanced. This typology initially comprised seven types: (1) Reassurance-oriented, (2) Anger-oriented, (3) Risk-taking-oriented, (4) Submission-oriented, (5) Self-preservation externally-oriented, (6) Self-preservation internally-oriented, and (7) Assertive-oriented. The advanced victim typology was used to classify the 160 participants based on their individual behavioural characteristics and personality traits. The results indicated that of the 160 victims, there was 24.4% "Reassurance-oriented" (*n*=39), 21.9% "Anger-oriented" (*n*=35), 15% "Risk-taking-oriented" (*n*=24), 7.5% "Submissive-oriented" (*n*=12), 8.7% "Self-preservation externally-oriented" (*n*=14), 9.4% "Self-preservation internally-oriented" (*n*=15), and 15.6% "Assertive-oriented" (*n*=25).

In regard to the second research aim, the advanced psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violent crimes was then applied to the sample in order to determine if any association existed between an interpersonal offence category and any types within the typology. It is apparent that a small number of significant associations between some specific offence categories and some types drawn from the typology existed. Regarding the existing associations, it is suggested that the crime category of domestic violence was associated with the "Self-preservation internally-oriented" type. The crime categories of sexual assault and physical assault were associated with the "Anger-oriented" type. Polyvictimisation was associated with the "Anger-oriented", "Risk-taking-oriented", and the "Self-preservation externally-oriented" types.

In regard to the third research aim, the advanced typology was first refined in order to obtain a clearer and more complete typology. After refinement, the typology

comprised five types: (1) Reassurance-oriented, (2) Anger-oriented, (3) Assertive-oriented, (4) Risk-taking-oriented, and (5) Self-preservation-oriented (either externally or internally-oriented). The results indicated that of the 160 victims, there was 31.9% "Reassurance-oriented" (*n*=51), 21.9% "Anger-oriented" (*n*=35), 15.6% "Assertive-oriented" (*n*=25), 15% "Risk-taking-oriented" (*n*=24), and 18.1% "Self-preservation-oriented" (*n*=29) (8.7%); (*n*=14) "externally-oriented" and 9.4% (*n*=15) "internally-oriented").

The empirically based psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violence was then compared with the four extant typologies from which it was derived. Overall, it seems that the victim typology has great concordance with the four typologies on which it was based. The comparison implied that victims and offenders do share similar behavioural characteristics and personality traits that can be explained internally, such as low self-esteem, anger, risk-taking, and assertiveness. The following chapter will contextualise and evaluate selective findings contained in the current chapter, as well as canvass the implications of the present study.

Chapter Five: Discussion and Conclusion

The primary goal of this research project was to advance current understandings on the psychological characteristics that are associated with risk of interpersonal violent crime victimisation. The research employed typologies, originally developed for violent offenders, to yield psychological factors to apply to a self-identified sample of crime victims. The proffered typology comprised five types that are largely confirmatory of existing research but that concomitantly deliver some novel observations about victim types. Findings from the present study indicated that reassurance-oriented, anger-oriented, assertive-oriented, risk-taking-oriented, and self-preservation-oriented associated behavioural characteristics and personality traits are correlated with risk of victimisation. The study was also concerned with determining associations between crime categories and psychological features. Individuals presented the characteristics of the following types: self-preservation with domestic violence; anger with sexual and physical assault; and anger, risk-taking, and self-preservation demonstrated risk for polyvictimisation. This chapter will first contextualise the findings presented in Chapter Four by outlining the five types of the refined psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violent crimes. It provides a description of the main characteristics associated with each type as well as their relevance in accordance with the literature. Then the chapter discusses the implications of the present study for theory and practice and demonstrates the contributions that this project makes to our understanding of victims of interpersonal violence. The last section addresses the limitations, options for future research, as well as a final conclusion.

A Psychological Typology for Victims of Violence

Echoing the earlier assumptions of Petherick and Sinnamon (2014) as derived from the work of Groth and others, the present study found that victims of interpersonal violence, are diverse in nature and do not possess unified psychological characteristics. Given that its genesis stemmmed from those earlier typologies, which have subsequently been afforded considerable support via a corpus of research studies (see Chapter Two) that

have examined psychological features, the "victim motivational typology" provided a cogent starting point for the present investigation. However, the present project is the first empirical study to identify behavioural characteristics and personality traits that are linked with risk of victimisation. Although a number of similarities were found across the four incorporated typologies, this psychological typology of victims of violence yielded some differences. In particular reassurance, anger, and assertive types demonstrate fairly direct parallels with both existing victim and offender typologies; however, the findings are more nuanced with respect to excitation/risk-taking and self-preservation. The revised empirically-derived typology will be presented below in order of prevalence of the PCA analysis and will include a summary of the findings for each type of victims of violence as well as provide points of association with the literature.

Reassurance-Oriented Victims

The Reassurance-oriented victim type is characterised by individuals who are likely to be submissive with low self-esteem and feelings of inadequacy leading them to fear rejection and perform poorly socially. A central aspect of this type, in accordance with the reassurance-oriented type of the four extant typologies, is low self-esteem. Low self-esteem has long been promulgated as a key determinant of poor adjustment, being associated with all forms of psychological problems such as anxiety or depression, as well as being linked to a long list of offending from peer victimisation to terrorism. It would seem that there is not a deviant activity nor a problematic personality style "that is not traceable to the problem of low self-esteem" (Brandon, 1984, p. 12). Low self-esteem has been identified as a risk factor for victimisation, partly because it is associated with specific behavioural incompetencies, such as perceived weakness, manifest anxiety, poor social skills, and submission, all of which are likely to be exhibited during interpersonal conflicts (De Vore, 2002; Egan & Perry, 1998). Thus, victims with low self-image are likely to project a self-deprecating identity that invites abuse (Egan & Perry, 1998).

The sense of failure and inadequacy often related to low self-esteem have been described as linked with the occurrences of victimisation (De Vore, 2002). Other characteristics, such as submissiveness, overwhelming empathy that can lead to fear of rejection, and poor social performance are also intrinsically linked with damaged self-image (Branden, 1984). It seems that the victimisation is associated with a sense of guilt or self-blame (Buel, 1999) and for some, it occurs because no matter how badly they are

mistreated, they are committed to or at least will remain in the relationship (De Vore, 2002; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). In cases of domestic violence and stalking, low self-esteem, and the characteristics often associated with it, are likely to be associated with repeat victimisation, as over time, "they become acculturated to violence or abuse that they come to accept it as part of being" (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 416).

Anger-Oriented Victims

The main characteristics of the anger-oriented type include impulsivity, anger, as well as displaying an overall aggressive nature. Victimisation is associated with overt aggressiveness, which results in anxiety and aggression in others, and creates a never-ending cycle of power struggles (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012). For example, aggressive and impulsive individuals are more likely to resort to force when confronted and have a tendency to "instigate and escalate rather than defuse potentially dangerous situations" (Pratt et al., 2014, p. 90). Individuals with high levels of impulsivity behave much differently compared to people with lower levels of impulsivity, and it is those behavioural differences that are associated with risk of victimisation (Conklin, 2013).

These findings are supported in the literature, as victims with unstable emotionality and anger traits have been described at risk for revictimisation of intimate partner violence (Ehrensaft et al., 1999; Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012). Similarly, the victim's own violent behaviour against the partner has been correlated with risk of victimisation (Capaldi et al., 2012). As proposed by Wilson et al. (1996, p. 4):

> it does seem likely that victims of assault are rendered more vulnerable by stable behavioural traits associated with the manner in which they express anger. This inference is drawn from the lack of evidence that victims experienced anger more intensely or more frequently than non-victims … a plausible psychological account for the more pronounced *expression* of anger is that these persons are poor at inhibiting hostile tendencies.

Thus, it seems that victims are rendered at risk of victimisation not only because of their aggressive nature but because of their lowered capacity to curb hostile reactions or in other words these notions revolve around a "lack of control". Anger-oriented victims are induced to victimisation through aggressively responding to or actively sabotaging others, which can lead to violent repercussions (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). As described by Petherick and Sinnamon (2014, p. 424), this type of victim, when threatened, is likely to "shoot first" as a method of retaliation.

Assertive-Oriented Victims

The assertive-oriented victim type embodies personal qualities such as arrogance, being self-absorbed, and displaying extreme confidence. The manifestation of these characteristics is likely to provoke aggressive responses in others making assertive-oriented victims at risk of victimisation (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). Narcissism is associated with extremely high dominance motivation and self-perceived power (Johnson, Leedom, & Muhtadie, 2012). Individuals, with a high degree of narcissistic personality will attempt to dominate others in order to protect their self-image (Kohut, 1977; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014; Raskin, Novacek, & Hogan, 1991). This is exemplified in the scenario where individuals with narcissistic personality have been described as deliberately making others feel "terrible" about themselves to make themselves feel better and superior (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014).

Individuals fitting this type have a capacity to possess high but unstable self-esteem. There are two forms of narcissism: overt and covert (Wink, 1991). The overt type is characterised by exhibitionism, exaggerated sense of self-importance, grandiosity, and desire for attention and is associated with a high self-esteem. On the other hand, the covert type is characterised by hyper sensibility to criticism, lack of self-confidence, being socially withdrawn, and grandiosity and is associated with low or high-fragile self-esteem (Brookes, 2015; Miller et al., 2011; Pincus et al., 2009; Rohmann et al., 2012, Rose, 2002). The covert type, or dark-side of narcissism, can lead to maladaptive personality patterns and psychopathy (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996). Individuals who fit the assertive-oriented victim type tend to be characterised by high but fragile self-esteem, as the characteristics of a threatened self-esteem are likely to be associated with hostile tendencies (Kernis, Grannemann, & Barclay, 1989). High but unstable self-esteem can result in "heightened sensitivity to ego threats, because the individual has much to lose and is vulnerable to the miserable feeling of a brief drop in self-esteem, and so his or her sensitivity may lead to maximal hostility" (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998, p. 219). The risk of victimisation comes when their own abilities do not measure up to this self-assurance and when their own attitudes of self-importance, produce upset, anger, or offence to others which in turn can result in retaliation.

Risk-Taking-Oriented Victims

The risk-taking-oriented victim type presents as highly sadomasochistic, with the propensity to engage in high-risk, antisocial, and self-harming behaviours. First, engaging in sadomasochistic behaviours is correlated with victimisation as crime victims involved in these behaviours can expose themselves to harm or loss either alone or with a partner (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). It can be illustrated by cases of hypoxyphilia or situtaions where victims are engaged in other forms of self-harm, such as scarification or cutting (Petherick & Ferguson, 2012). Victims can also, in some cases, engage in self-harm in order to regulate negative affect. It is important to recognise the fact that victimisation can occur as a result of self-harming behaviours with a number of situations where masochistic behaviour can cause serious physical harm or been life-threatening (Hucker, 2008).

Risk-taking oriented victims, unique to the present refined typology, are also at risk of victimisation, because they were likely to engage in risky and antisocial behaviours. It is acknowledged that risk-taking can in some ways be positive and fun, but it is also recognised that it can have a negative effect on day-to-day basis (Healey, 2012). Individuals who seek risk and engage in antisocial behaviours, such as fighting, using drugs, or stealing and destroying things, are attracted to pleasurable and thrilling experiences, which is associated with risk for victimisation (Pratt et al., 2014; Schreck, 1999; Smart et al., 2005). Taking part in risky or antisocial activities has been described as strongly associated with risk of victimisation, as it may bring individuals "into close proximity to dangerous places and people" (Pratt et al., 2014, p. 89; Jensen & Brownfield, 1986; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1994; Smart et al., 2005).

Self-Preservation-Oriented Victims

The self-preservation-oriented victim type displayed two subtypes: internally and externally-oriented. Self-preservation manifest in two forms passive and active. These different forms of self-defence lead victims to escape, avoid, and protect themselves against violence (Dutton, 1992). The self-preservation internally-oriented subtype is likely to remain in an abusive relationship, for a number of reasons: risk of retaliation, concerns over the well-being of children, or because there is nowhere to go. For some individuals, staying in an abusive relationship and allowing violence is a form of

preservation since “leaving almost guarantees harm or loss” (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 418). This self-preservation subtype demonstrates almost total avoidance of any risky or antisocial behaviours, by fear of the consequences. This type represents the antithesis of victim precipitation, as individuals who fall into this category would do anything to protect themselves by being passive or avoiding any risky behaviours.

On the other hand, the self-preservation externally-oriented will be more likely to strike-back and use self-defence in order “to restore some kind of imbalance of power, especially in situations where their own lives, or the life of another is threatened” (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014, p. 418). The externally-oriented subtype is more often described in the literature. Indeed, in a meta-analysis conducted on 74 studies, Langhinrichsen-Rohling and colleagues (2012) reviewed perceived reasons that frequently emerge for intimate partner violence. The second most proffered reason underlying violent behaviour was self-defence (61%), with men equally likely to engage in partner aggression in self-defence (Elmquist et al., 2014; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, McCullars, & Misra, 2012). The only difference is that even if females do initiate violence, men are more likely to cause injuries (Elmquist et al., 2014). As it stands, self-preservation externally-oriented can be described as a version of self-defence against an abusive partner or any situation where the victim’s life is threatened (Griffiths, 2006).

The refined psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violent crime comprises five different types that demonstrate the heterogeneity of victim characteristics. This thesis posited that regarding the well-established victim-offender overlap, there will be concordance between offender and victim types based on a psychological analysis. This point was corroborated as out of five victim types, four were concordant with the three extant offender typologies (Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Hazelwood, 2009; Petherick & Turvey, 2008;): reassurance, anger, assertive, and risk-taking (as applied to victim behaviours). The self-preservation-oriented type was the only type that was not found in psychological typologies of offenders. This research adds to an existing victimological repository of knowledge by capturing never before gathered data from victims of selected interpersonal violent crimes, in particular, behavioural characteristics and personality traits. Growing this body of knowledge is critical for the advancement of the field and the discipline as a whole. Victims seem to possess intra-personal characteristics that can be explained internally, such as low self-esteem, anger, assertiveness, and/or risk-taking, and which are associated with their risk of victimisation.

Association Between Offence Categories and the Typology

Findings from the second analysis performed on the sample was to apply the types of the advanced psychological typology to the five interpersonal violent offence categories of domestic violence, stalking, sexual assault, physical assault, and polyvictimisation (victims of more than one of those crime categories). In order to perform the analysis, each crime category and the 24 behavioural characteristics and personality traits were submitted to a Spearman's correlation. The relationships that were shown to be substantial in the correlation analysis were then subjected to a series of Chi-square 2x2 tests of association. A small number of significant associations between the crime category and the types that comprise the advanced psychological typology for victims of interpersonal violence were found. It is suggested that domestic violence was more likely to be associated with the "Self-preservation-oriented" type (internally-oriented subtype). The crime categories of sexual assault and physical assault were more likely to be correlated with the "Anger-oriented" type. Polyvictimisation was more likely to be associated with the "Anger-oriented", "Risk-taking-oriented", and the "Self-preservation-oriented" (externally-oriented subtype) types.

According to the present findings, the crime category of domestic violence was associated with the characteristics of the self-preservation-oriented victim type (subtype: internally-oriented). The characteristics that were significant for the crime category of domestic violence were financial abuse, the use of self-protective behaviours, and the avoidance of risky, antisocial, and self-harm behaviours. Financial abuse and financial despair are often described as reasons for victims to stay in an abusive relationship (Buel, 1999; Gharaibeh & Oweis, 2009; Petherick & Ferguson, 2012). Financial abuse has been described as closely associated with domestic violence risk as it often leads to the victim being "trapped" in a violent relationship because of financial despair (Buel, 1999; Corrie & McGuire, 2013). The use of self-protective behaviours, in order to reduce the risk of harm or loss, such as avoiding risky, antisocial, and self-harm behaviours, also seem to be connected with the crime category of domestic violence. Leaving an abusive relationship has been described as a major risk factor for domestic violence homicide (Kasperkevic, 2014; Ross, 2015); therefore, the decision to stay is, for some victims, a self-preservation action with an evidentiary basis. The self-preservation instinct of some victims leads them to stay, because the cost of being victimised is smaller than the

retaliatory action from an abusive partner, or the real or perceived risk of financial hardships once removed from the domestic setting (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014).

The crime categories of sexual assault, physical assault, and victims of more than one interpersonal violence offence were associated with the characteristics of the anger-oriented victim type. These three offence categories were associated with anger, impulsivity, antisocial, and risky behaviours. It was instructive to find a link between those crime categories and the anger type, as those crimes are highly correlated, but also anger and aggressive behaviours toward others have been described as resulting in aggressive responses and, therefore, increasing the chance of physical assault or polyvictimisation (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014; Wilson et al., 1996). Angry, aggressive, and impulsive individuals are likely to be victimised by behaving in ways that are violent, aggressive, or antisocial (Wilson et al., 1996). Furthermore, the anger-oriented type is characterised by a greater chance of utilising antisocial and risky behaviour, which would again increase the risk of victimisation as well as polyvictimisation.

The link between the anger type and the risk of being sexually assaulted once again centres largely around the anger-type characteristics of high-risk and antisocial behaviours (Benson, Gohm, & Gross, 2007; Franklin et al., 2011). However, it must be stressed that these associations are complex particularly when teasing them out for sexual crimes. The set of variables that cluster as "anger" also contain measures of risky and antisocial behaviours. The extant literature provides evidence of a clear relationship between high-risk behaviours, such as alcohol and drug abuse, sexual promiscuity, and vulnerability to sexual victimisation. Alcohol and drug abuse are major risk factors in a number of reported sexual assaults (Abbey, 1991; Benson, Gohm, & Gross, 2007; Gidycz, van Wynsberghe, & Edwards, 2008; Pernanen, 1991; Schry, Maddox, & White, 2016). Promiscuous individuals, including sex workers, are more likely to experience repeat victimisation and, more specifically, brutal sexual assaults (Lowman, 2000; Quadara, 2008).

Polyvictimisation was also associated with the risk-taking-oriented and the self-preservation-oriented types (subtype: externally-oriented). There is a broad range of studies that point to characteristics, such as higher engagement in violent behaviour, lower self-control, anger, aggression, masochism, sadism, fear and desperation, increasing someone's risk of victimisation (Daday et al., 2005; Hucker, 2008; Jennings

et al., 2010; Piquero et al., 2005; Silver, 2002; Wittebrood & Nieuwbeerta, 1999, 2000). Risk-taking-oriented victims are characterised by a propensity to engage in antisocial and risky behaviours, which are all associated with risk of victimisation from a physical, psychological, or sexual point of view (Franklin et al., 2011). According to the present findings, individuals who possess the characteristics of the self-preservation oriented victim type (subtype: externally-oriented), also have a high risk of becoming a victim of more than one crime. This is consistent with the literature where victimisation risk increases if the victim is the first one commencing the interplay or resorts to physical violence (Wolfgang, 1967). Victimisation is the result of active aggression by fear or desperation or a need to retaliate for a wrong committed against them without any consideration of the risk associated with their behaviours (Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014).

Implications for Theory and Practice

This thesis drew on six conceptual fields, which are interconnected. Empirically, the present study, focusing specifically on crime victims, provides support for the victim-offender overlap, and how this overlap is particularly evident in crime of interpersonal violence. This thesis also highlights the benefits of using psychological victimology in order to gain a better understanding of crime victimisation. This study, uses typologies to provide an empirically based heuristic device for the classification of victims of interpersonal violence; the use of typologies has been seminal in criminology and can improve our understanding of victimology. Practically, this thesis uses a risk perspective that led to embracing the notion of risk instead of the notion of victim-precipitation as used in the past and deemed to be controversial. This section highlights the importance of risk-reduction and provides some practical outcomes.

Contribution to the Understanding of Crime Victims

The understanding of the etiology of victimisation is "one of several main goals in the study of criminology" (Franklin et al., 2011, p. 3). The findings of the present research project have significant implications for criminology and victimology theory. First, they contribute to the understanding of crime victims by providing guidance to the theoretical framework described in Chapter Two. There is support for applying the "traditional criminological" theories of lifestyle/routine activities theory (Hindelang, Gottfredson, & Garofalo, 1978; Cohen & Felson, 1979) and self-control theory (Gottfredson & Hisrchi,

1990) to issues of victimisation. It is acknowledged that broader demographic and societal factors along with situational and ecological features have considerable explanatory value (Sampson & Lauritsen, 1991). This is not to discard the place that a psychological perspective can bring to our knowledge to victims.

In accordance with the theoretical framework, the present study seemed to verify that low self-control (e.g. impulsivity and risky-behaviours) and risky lifestyles are linked with risk of victimisation. Both dimensions of self-control used in the present study, impulsivity and risk-taking, were associated with polyvictimisation. This is consistent with the General Theory of Crime, which implies that individuals with low self-control are more likely to engage in dangerous activities without thinking of the consequences of their actions (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). It is acknowledged that the measure of self-control used in the present study was imperfect, as it featured only two major dimensions of self-control. However, these two dimensions have been shown to demonstrate the most explanatory power (Ren et al., 2017). Impulsivity and risk-taking (e.g. thrill-seeking) have been described as risk factors for a number of behavioural outcomes, such as offending and victimisation (Daigle, Beaver, & Hartman, 2008; Jennings et al., 2010; Ren et al., 2017; Schreck, 1999; Wood, Pfefferbaum, & Arneklev, 1993).

Additionally, in accordance with lifestyle/routine activity theory, the present findings corroborate that engaging in risky lifestyles (e.g antisocial behaviours and use of aggression) was also related to risk of victimisation. Victims, by engaging in certain behaviours, often in proximity to offenders and/or in the absence of a guardian, can increase their personal vulnerability and, therefore, risk of victimisation (Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990). For example, individuals who engage in fights, use drugs, or steal or destroy things are more likely to suffer harm or loss (Pratt et al., 2014). Thus, theoretically the present dissertation is in accordance with the literature where the pairing of lifestyle/routine activity theory with self-control theory results in improved "understanding of both the individual and situational contexts associated with victimization experiences" (Ren et al., 2017, p. 695).

Theoretically there is still a dichotomy between victims and offenders. It seems that theories of crime are intended to explain criminal offending or criminality and therefore ignore an important component of the crime event which is the crime victim. Because there is more and more evidence of a concordance between those who perpetrate

crime and those who suffer from it, it is time to recognise that theories that identify common processes and antecedents would be advantageous. However, it needs to be acknowledged that victims are not offenders and it is not the suggestion here that every criminological theory could be applied to victimisation. Indeed "if a theory is specifically devoted to crime and not to victimization, then it should predict differentiation of individuals toward offending more than victimization" (Schreck, Stewart, & Osgood, 2008, p. 893). While it is conceded that not all theories can address all criminological concerns (offending, criminality, compliance, victimisation, or victimity), lest they be diluted and have low explanatory power, the argument is that it is time to theorise about victims and offenders in a conjoint approach.

Finally, the present findings do point to the need to understand the heterogeneity of victims – they are not all passive or "ideal" as is often assumed in public and political discourse (Heber, 2014). It has been demonstrated that in the new era of "re-emergence" of the victim, which is more about victim deification, academic work has stopped looking at victim characteristics through fear of being seen as blaming the victim (Zur, 1994). Thus, the refinement of this first empirically-based psychological typology of victims of violence has epistemological value. This study has broadened the scope of victimology by eschewing the notion of "ideal" victims in favour of a more "realistic" approach. It is important to keep in mind the difference between determining any factors that correlate with risk of victimisation (Schreck, 1999) and implying that individuals are responsible for their own fates.

The Convergence of Victims and Offenders

The victim-offender relationship is one of the most important and enduring notions in victimology, with the acknowledgement of the "doer-sufferer" (von Hentig, 1948) or "penal couple" (Mendelsohn, 1956) first appearing more than six decades ago. This concordance between victim and offender is most evident in offences of an interpersonal nature (Hamby & Grych, 2013). It could be deemed somewhat self-evident by resorting to the definition of interpersonal violence alone; that is, these are interpersonal crimes and, therefore, there is an implicit assumption about an exchange relationship of some sort occurring. Drawing on the early tradition of von Hentig and Mendelsohn, there was a need to understand the situation and dynamics that lead to victimisation.

Even though the literature has acknowledged the presence of a victim-offender overlap (Lauritsen & Laub, 2007; Wolfgang, 1958), there is still the propensity to treat victims and offenders as two mutually exclusive groups (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012) in spite of the fact that most predictors of offending are also predictors of victimisation (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Lauritsen, Sampson, & Laub, 1991). This research project furthers our understanding of the overlap between victims and offenders, not only from broader societal or more immediate situational perspectives, as abundant in the literature, but specifically from a psychological perspective. It seems that both victims and offenders share similar characteristics, such as reassurance needs, anger, risk taking, and assertiveness; although in the present study victims also appear to be self-preservation-oriented. As emphasised earlier (Chapter Two), it is conceded that this overlap is not ubiquitous nor deterministic, that is, not all victims are offenders and vice versa. In addition, there might be some recurring themes in the literature as to how the overlap manifests in specific crime categories (Turanovic & Young, 2016). In light of the present study, that adopts a psychological perspective on interpersonal violent crimes, there is evidence of the concordance between victims and offenders. Thus, at both the theoretical and empirical levels there is a need for less bifurcation between victims and offenders and a much more integrated approach.

It is acknowledged that the directionality of the association between victimisation and offending is an important consideration (Ousey, Wilcox, & Fisher, 2011; Reid & Sullivan, 2012). Some types of offending, such as drug-related activities, clearly generate greater risk of victimisation (Chen, 2009; Dobrin, 2001; Higgins et al., 2009) through personal injury and death as a result of the use of illicit substances or from involvement in criminal milieu (Koo, Chitwood, & Sanchez, 2008). Another explanation resides in the fact that it is victimisation and its related traumatism that can lead to dysfunctional cognitive and personality outcomes (Lin, Cochran, & Mieczkowski, 2011; Macmillan, 2001). Yet, there is still a tendency to associate trauma with victimisation exclusively and forget that early trauma can affect brain function and lead to long-term consequences such as offending (Hasley, 2018; King, 2017). It is possible that our examination of victimisation should commence at earlier life stages where abusive pathways for children may result in a higher likelihood of offending or dysfunctional behaviour due to disruption in healthy psychological development. Once again, longitudinal or time-interval cohort studies would assist in teasing out the antecedents of the cross-over

between victims and offenders. Despite evidence of the existence of the victim-offender overlap few trauma studies and interventions adopt this dual focus. However, we are still left with the proposition that there is commonality of at least some individual characteristics that increase the risk for both victimisation and offending which makes these two groups indistinguishable from one another (Baron, Forde, & Kay, 2007; Reid & Sullivan, 2012; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990).

The Harnessing of Typologies

Even though it is evident from the literature review that there have been substantial efforts afforded to the construction of victim typologies and that some of them have been helpful to develop the field of victimology (Mendelsohn, 1956; Schafer, 1977; von Hentig, 1948), their number, extent, and quality seem restrained. Most of the few attempts to classify individual differences and risk of victimisation is limited too descriptive and unidimensional typologies (Landau & Freeman-Longo, 1990; Schafer, 1977). Published typologies tend to address victim involvement in the criminal event by proposing a continuum of culpability for victims (Menseldohn, 1974; Schafer, 1977), focusing on the victim-offender relationship (Sellin & Wolfgang, 1964), or incorporating the degree of victim participation (Fattah, 1980). While von Hentig (1948) addressed involvement in the crime event by centring on victim vulnerabilities, which in some way corresponds with the aim of this current research, his observations are controversial, dated, and lack support. Therefore, it was decided to turn to some of the foundational psychological typology of offender behaviours in trying to classify the psychology of crime victims in a similar way.

The first aim of this doctorate was to empirically refine a psychological typology of victimisation based on behavioural characteristics and personality traits that applied to victims of interpersonal violence, in an attempt to understand the psychological mechanisms underlying risk of interpersonal violence victimisation. The first major contribution of the developed typology is that it provides significant insight into the diversity of crime victims in general but also provides the homogeneous nature of each type. Crime victims can be classified according to their behaviours and personalities: reassurance seekers, angry, risk-takers, assertiveness and those who pursue self-preservation. Thus, the refinement of this first empirically-based psychological typology of victims of violence, has epistemological value, as it provides a heuristic device that

could help in the understanding of victimisation.

Each type that was empirically elicited in the refined psychological typology for victims of violence pointed to individual differences about behaviours and/or personality traits, which placed them at higher risk of victimisation. First, this study found a link between low self-esteem and risk of victimisation, as well as high but fragile self-esteem and risk of victimisation. There is a need to gain awareness and understanding about the critical role that self-esteem plays in individual functioning with the idea that established and sufficient self-esteem is linked to positive decisions, behaviours, and better coping mechanisms. Within the present sample, anger, aggression, and impulsivity were linked to physical assault and polyvictimisation. The present results demonstrate that some victims are likely to be victimised by behaving in ways that are violent and/or aggressive. Moreover, impulsivity and high-risk behaviours, such as drinking, drug use, and promiscuous sex, have been found to enhance a victim's personal vulnerability (Schreck, 1999; TenEyck & Barnes, 2017). Finally, passive and active behaviours can increase the risk of victimisation. Striking-back or fighting-back as a self-defence measure due to fear or desperation can increase individuals' risk of harm, while being passive allows the individual to become a victim. Taken in this context, the present findings might help direct attention to those intra-individual factors that can increase an individual's risk of harm.

Despite firmly embracing a typological perspective here, it is undeniable that there are significant limitations in the value and utility of typologies. They are often not based on data, they have porous boundaries which means that the types are not mutually exclusive, they involve the labelling and categorisation of items based on nominal types that derive from highly subjective processes, and generally there are no metrics included so that the relations between types are unquantified. In addition to critiques of the manner in which they are constructed, there is a raft of problems in the ways in which they are applied. Often, they have been poorly used and some appear to have gained prominence beyond their actual value or utility (for example, the FBI's overused organised/disorganised dichotomy for serial offenders). It is for these reasons that the use of typologies is often criticised and therefore at different time periods and for varying sub-fields of criminology their popularity has waxed and waned. However, classification and sorting items is part of the human condition; it is what we do, it is a very important process in all facets of our lives. More specifically, it is a fundamental component of

analysis under the umbrella of the social sciences. Categorising, labelling, sorting and grading are the means by which we make sense of data, capture reality, and thereby move towards creating theories and practical applications.

The Value of Victim Psychology

In order to understand the psychology of victims, there is a need to understand the major psychological characteristics that are associated with the risk of victimisation. As stated previously, the difference between victims and non-victims lies not only in external factors, as is so often argued, but in internal factors as well (Franklin et al., 2011; Zur, 1994). Even though, until now, the relevance of personality within the study of criminology and victimology has been muted, those disciplines have much to gain from personality theory (Caspi et al., 1994; Reid, 2011). There is now "opportunities to investigate the role of individual traits in offending, recidivism, and even victimization" (Reid, 2011, p. 8). Focusing on traits and behaviours could elucidate why certain individuals react in certain ways and why some particular individuals become targets of crime while others do not (Reid, 2011). As stated by White, Haines, and Asquith (2017, p. 56), "recent work has ... challenged criminology to come to grips with the bio-psychological dimensions" that are pertinent both to criminal and victim behaviours. Because of the well-established victim-offender overlap, it seems crucial to focus on the psychology of victims to gain a better and more integrated understanding of criminal victimisation.

Some researchers have pointed out the impact of some intra-individual characteristics (i.e. behavioural characteristics and personality traits) that were linked with risk of interpersonal violence victimisation: self-esteem (De Vore, 2002; Egan & Perry, 1998), anger (Kuijpers, van der Knaap, & Winkel, 2012; Nettelbeck & Wilson, 2002), antisocial behaviours (Sampson & Lauritsen, 1994; Smart et al., 2005), self-control (Franklin et al., 2011; Schreck, 1999; Schreck et al., 2007), substance abuse (Jennings, Piquero, & Reingle, 2012; Sampson & Lauritsen, 1990), and personality disorders (Meijwaard et al., 2015; Petherick & Sinnamon, 2014). These characteristics were found in the sample of self-identified victims and were associated with victimisation. For example, antisocial and risky behaviours, anger, and impulsivity were characteristics of individuals who were victims of more than one crime category. Thus, individuals do possess attributes that can predispose them towards becoming a victim

(Schreck et al., 2007). A better understanding of those attributes might have the benefit of decreasing an individual's risk of victimisation. The psychology of victim behaviour outlined in this thesis has certain value. It includes a respect for human diversity and individual differences along with acknowledgement for the complexity of human behaviour.

Aid to Identify Risk

Developing empirical knowledge of risk factors is one step to an increased understanding of victim conduct. Empirical knowledge of such risk factors could increase the effectiveness and efficiency in the design and delivery of prevention, rehabilitation programs, and risk assessment instruments. This ability has been well established regarding reducing criminal behaviours (Andrews & Bonta, 2010). As indicated earlier, a focus on victim related factors is important because these are factors within victims' own sphere of influence (Cattaneo & Goodman, 2005). Knowledge of these factors might support victims of interpersonal violence to be active change agents (Foa et al., 2000). It is acknowledged that some personality traits remain stable throughout life course which renders many behaviours consistent and persistent (Hergenhahn & Olson, 2007). Nevertheless, there is an equal body of evidence that demonstrates that personality traits are amenable to change (Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006).

The present findings have policy implications in the area of risk. While mindful of the potential deleterious consequences of labelling, at risk individuals could be identified by focusing on personality traits (impulsivity, anger, self-esteem) or behaviours (substance abuse, antisocial behaviours, aggression). This research shows that victims share similar risk factors as offenders, and given that the similarities are from a psychological and personality perspective, it is likely to emerge early in life. Therefore, early interventions, as proposed for offenders, could be the most profitable crime prevention strategy to prevent risk of victimisation and revictimisation (Posick, 2012).

Additionally, a better understanding of the psychology of victims as well as the victim–offender connection could aid policy and programs that address violence by giving guidance about their shared experiences (Schreck, Stewart, & Osgood, 2008). It is undeniable that contemporary programs remain embedded in the misguided assumption that victims and offenders are distinct populations and address one group or the other but rarely both. Moreover, these programs ignore the fact that a large share of those who

frequently encounter violence take on roles as victims as well as offenders. Victim assistance programs, for example, tend to consider only the "true" victims to be deserving of assistance (Karmen, 2013); consequently, the needs of victim-offenders are neglected in program delivery. Similarly, offender-only rehabilitative or correctional programs might more effectively meet their aims by taking into account that many of their clientele experience a mixture of offending and victimisation (Halsey, 2018; King, 2017).

The findings of the present study could be used by professionals who are responsible for responding and managing crime victims, such as health professional, victim services, and investigation officers, and also for crime prevention purposes. The refined psychological typology could help in the development of more effective therapeutic interventions from a mental health point of view and help in the completion of the investigative phase by providing a context to victim precipitation. Moreover, it could help develop victim-centred crime prevention techniques and threat management solutions in order to reduce the risk of victimisation. The main benefit would be in assisting in designing effective therapeutic interventions that target the underlying causes associated with the risk of an individual to become a victim of crime. Increasing the knowledge of victim related factors could be relevant, as it could help practitioners provide appropriate and efficient services to interpersonal violent crime victims. There is a the possibility that the findings of the present research could deliver considerable practical significance especially by focusing our attention on: self-esteem, anger, antisocial and risk behaviours, substance abuse, and self-preservation.

Two distinct personality traits, self-esteem and anger, have been found as increasing one's risk of victimisation. Low self-esteem, as well as high self-esteem, are a solid explanation for a number of social and personal problem, from criminal behaviour to drug abuse, to victimisation. Self-esteem seems linked to behaviours in complex ways; however, it is still unclear if "self-esteem is either consequence rather than cause or that self-esteem and the behaviour of interest are both influenced by something else" (Emler, 2001, p. 58). Perhaps we should be more willing to acknowledge that very high self-esteem, as much as exceptionally low self-esteem, is a problem requiring solution, and more open-minded to the benefits of moderation. Additionally, the present study indicated that, in some instances, some victims are likely to show high levels of anger and aggression, which can contribute to their own victimisation. Cognitive behavioural anger management programs have been found effective in reducing anger arousal and

anger control in offenders (Howells et al., 2002) and, therefore, could be found applicable for anger-oriented victim type.

Antisocial behaviours have been described as risk factors for both risk of offending and victimisation. A number of person-centred interventions have been described in order to prevent the onset of antisocial behaviours (Rubin et al., 2006). First, early interventions seem to be critical in the prevention of antisocial behaviours, because the presence of antisocial behaviours in a child is "one of the strongest predictors of an individuals' future deviant or anti-social behaviour" (Rubin et al., 2006, p. 9). Second, because of the interaction between a potential offender and potential victim, situational interventions could also reduce risk. Situational interventions could include substance control or decreased exposure to violence (Hamby & Grych, 2013). An understanding of the link between substance abuse and risk of victimisation by victim services, mental health providers, as well as allied professionals, could lead to more effective prevention efforts. Thus, preventing alcohol misuse among victims or potential victims, as is carried out with offenders, could reduce victimisation (Shepherd, Sutherland, & Newcombe, 2006). Another intervention is by acquiring "pro-social thinking" and emotional skills, in order to make individuals identify and understand how their past and current factors have influenced them in their choice for an antisocial lifestyle (Ross & Hilborn, 2008). Approaches to reducing antisocial behaviours that take this into account by combining the efforts of several agencies and multiple types of interventions might be expected to have even more success than one intervention implemented on its own (Rubin et al., 2006).

Finally, self-preservation has also been described as a risk factor for victimisation. The remedy to this may lie in self-defence training for victims, as the skills taught in these classes show promise for reducing risk of violence and enhancing one's ability to resist assault (Hollander, 2004). Madden and Sokol (1997) question whether physical resistance would be more effective if victims were better trained in self-defence skills. In some extreme cases, physically disabling the perpetrator and fleeing may be a victim's only chance of survival, while at other times, attempting to verbally de-escalate the situation may be more appropriate. In addition, it is imperative that a range of community based support services are made available to offer opportunities for victims to escape abusive relationships.

Limitations and Future Research

The present study has provided important theoretical and policy outcomes in our understanding of crime victimisation and was conducted on self-identified interpersonal violent crime victims through purposive sampling. As a direct consequence of this methodology, the study encountered a number of limitations, which need to be considered. The first limitation resides in the fact that respondents were self-selected. While a definition of the type of victimisation experienced was provided to each participant at the beginning of the survey, all participants were required to self-report being victims of domestic violence, stalking, sexual assault, physical assault, or more than one of those crimes. There is no guarantee that they, in fact, were actual victims and the frequency of such victimisation. Secondly, in terms of representativeness, the findings are only generalisable to Australian Caucasian females, as the majority of the sample was mainly composed of Australian Caucasian females aged 18 to 49. Additionally, the crime of stalking, was under represented, as it is notoriously difficult to access (Raj, 2017), which again makes the comparisons and generalisations difficult.

As stated in Chapter Three, the online survey method has been prevalent means way of gathering data from target participants (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002; Popper, 2002). However, online surveys come with their own limitations. First, self-administered questionnaires or surveys lack validity, as there is no way to tell how truthful a respondent is when responding, especially regarding questions of a sensitive nature. However, it has been shown that self-administered surveys suffer less from participant desirability bias than face to face or phone interviews (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002). Another limitation with the self-administered survey is about misinterpretation of the questions. It has been demonstrated that face-to-face interviews decrease the risk of misinterpretation or misunderstanding as well as skip patterns. In the present study, because of ethical considerations about the sensitive nature of the sample, face-to-face interviews were eschewed.

Another methodological limitation for this research was the representativeness of the data. Small samples make the generalisation of the results difficult, but it does provide the premises of an idea to be used in future research. In this study, the size of the sample was the result of two factors: the difficulty of studying and accessing crime victims and the length of the questionnaire. Owing to the fact that research that involves crime victims

could potentially harm the respondent, human research ethics committees often require strict guidelines around accessing, interviewing/surveying victims, and analysing and reporting on the data, which limits the scope of research potential (Fuller, 2015a). In the current study and for ethical purposes, direct contact with victims or contact through victim groups was renounced by fear of secondary victimising. In order to decrease the victim stress and risk of secondary victimisation, an online study was carried out to recruit voluntary participants.

Critically, the questionnaire comprised too many items, which may have caused a significant number of respondents to discontinue with the study. A sizeable number of participants withdrew from the research suggesting that the length of the questionnaire was a prime reason for doing so. It is therefore likely that a shorter version of the questionnaire would have increased participation and completion rates. This selection process involved unpacking each type and teasing out the variables that were said to characterise each type. These were then matched to available scales and, in some instances, modifications had to be made. A key determination in how the publicly available scales were manipulated was in trying to limit the extent of the questionnaire, which ended up totalling over 400 items. As was discussed in detail in Chapter Three, a considerable amount of attention was given to deriving appropriate measures for all key concepts drawn from the offender and victim typologies. This research strategy deemed it essential to include all of the 24 variables and to have extensive measures of each, but given the results it seems that some features have less salience than others. For example, feelings of inadequacy, fear of rejection, self-efficacy, and social anxiety are all factors that can underpin the broader notion of self-concept but they yielded less prominence in the present analysis. There is the possibility that other researchers may have focused on different criteria and selected different scales and then opted for different items within those scales. However, the present study has justified the research and selection process for each of these.

Finally, and as raised earlier (Chapter 3), a major limitation of the present research study is inherent in the fact that the constructed questionnaire did not contain any questions about previous victimisation or prior offending. This means it is difficult to generalise the findings as there is no way of knowing if the personality characteristics were present before or as the result of victimisation. There is still so much more to know about the plasticity of the human brain and the impact that trauma can have on biological

and psychological functioning, and whether they are permanent or more acute. Such knowledge will no doubt help inform future studies related to the present research area, and importantly, has the potential to assist in refining trauma-informed interventions for both victims and offenders (Hasley, 2018; King, 2017; Miller & Najavits, 2012).

Given the findings and limitations of this project, it is clear that there is a large scope of research necessary that should be undertaken in the future. This could involve a number of elements, including the expansion of the sample in general and the diversification of the respondents (more males) and the crime experienced (increasing the number of stalking only victims), to allow for greater generalisability. This could be accomplished by improving the recruitment method and downsizing the length of the questionnaire. Furthermore, the use of interviews and, therefore, qualitative and longitudinal data, could explain and expand some of the quantitative findings in a more comprehensive manner. Second, as demonstrated throughout this study, more research is required to expand knowledge about the concordance between victimisation and offending. Regarding the important outcome of the present study on the victim-offender overlap, further research on the generalisability of this overlap across contexts and effects is an essential area for future research. It is also acknowledged as a limitation that the sample was comprised of interpersonal violent crime victims only, and that the sampling of non-victims would be a fruitful design for future research. Third, behavioural characteristics and personality traits, which are specific to each type, should be addressed in more detail, where it is recommended that self-concept, self-control, anger, and self-preservation are the most worthy of further evaluation.

Concluding Remarks

Until now, the general victim literature has suggested that interpersonal crime victimisation is the result of broader factors (e.g. age, sex, social status, or race), while it seems that victimisation, similar to offending, has to be considered also as the result of intra-individual characteristics. This work is a primary step in refining and examining individual differences of interpersonal violent crime. A number of behaviours and personality traits are deemed to be correlated to the risk of victimisation. The present study comprises the first empirical research conducted on a sample of victims of interpersonal violence in order to identify psychological mechanisms linked with victimisation incidents and is expected to provide a sound foundation for further studies

in this vein. In particular, this research provides a greater understanding of the different types of psychologies of crime victims: reassurance-oriented, anger-oriented, assertive-oriented, risk-taking-oriented, and self-preservation-oriented. Additionally, this study focused on more than one category of interpersonal violence (domestic violence, stalking, sexual assault, and physical assault) and thus extends beyond sampling one crime category only and demonstrates their intercorrelation.

As an epistemological work, this study has broadened the scope of victimology by providing data about victims of interpersonal violence, and allowed a better understanding of the behavioural characteristics and personality traits that might put them in a situation where they can be victimised. It is contended that this thesis, guided by a critical positivist victimological approach, is new and unconventional, but is expected to foster the emergence of future studies on psychological features of crime victims. The findings of the present research, in contrast with the skewed image of crime victims depicted in public and political discourse, is expected to provide a more sophisticated and realistic approach and description of crime victims to enrich our understanding. The present findings should be used as a support for a more integrated approach between victimisation and offending, given that victims and offenders share a number of characteristics and risk factors. In the long term, this area of research is expected to provide novel victim-centred crime prevention techniques and treatment management solutions, and would also furnish a better approach for the management of victims in specialised services.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Survey Codebook

Demographics	**N**	**%**
What is your gender?		
Male	15	9
Female	145	91
What is your age?		
18-29	41	26
30-49	109	68
50-64	8	5
65 or more	2	1
What is the highest level of education you have completed?		
Year 12	87	54
Trade/technical/vocational training	37	23
Undergraduate degree	25	16
Postgraduate degree	11	7
What is your relationship status?		
Single/never married	73	46
Married/defacto	42	26
Separated/divorced	42	26
Widowed	3	2
What was your longest relationship?		
Less than a year	101	63
1-2 years	24	15
3-5 years	18	11
6-10 years	3	2
More than 10 years	14	9
How many children live in your household?		
None	66	41
One	35	22
Two	41	26
Three or more	18	11
Which of the following best describes the area you live in?		
Metropolitan	21	13
Suburban/rural	139	87
Which of the following categories best describes your employment status?		
Casual/part-time	60	38
Full-time	29	18
Not employed, looking for work	26	16
Not employed, not looking for work	24	15

Disabled, not able to work	18	11
Retired	3	2

What is your income and your total household income in AUD?

Your income:		
Under $29,999	96	60
$30,000-$74,999	55	34
$75,000 or over	9	6
Total household:		
Under $29,999	66	41
$30,000-$74,999	53	33
$75,000 or over	41	26

What is your religious affiliation?

No religion	111	69
Christian	28	18
Other	21	13

What is your ethnic group?

White or Caucasian	145	91
Asian	2	1
Pacific Islander	2	1
Aboriginal or TSI	7	4
Other	4	3

What kind of crime have you been a victim of?

Domestic violence	64	40
Sexual assault	37	23
Stalking	6	4
Physical assault	18	11
Multiple	35	22

Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (RSES)

Determine for each statement if you: Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree (N, %).

	SD	D	A	SA
I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	2 (1)	17 (11)	91 (57)	50 (31)
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	5 (3)	61 (38)	57 (36)	37 (23)
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	23 (14)	34 (21)	96 (60)	7 (4)
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	0 (0)	51 (32)	82 (51)	27 (17)
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	12 (8)	58 (36)	84 (53)	6 (4)
I take a positive attitude toward myself.	9 (6)	43 (27)	87 (54)	21 (13)
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	6 (4)	65 (41)	69 (43)	20 (13)
I wish I could have more respect for myself.	26 (16)	55 (34)	54 (34)	25 (16)
I certainly feel useless at times.	11 (7)	71 (44)	56 (35)	22 (14)
At times I think I am no good at all.	20 (13)	69 (43)	57 (36)	14 (9)

General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE)

Indicate how true each of the following statements is in describing you: Not True, Hardly True, Moderately True, Exactly True (N, %).

	NT	HT	MT	ET
I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	1 (1)	6 (4)	94 (59)	59 (37)
If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	5 (3)	82 (51)	59 (37)	14 (9)
It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	23 (14)	41 (26)	72 (45)	24 (15)
I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	8 (5)	64 (40)	79 (49)	9 (6)
Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	3 (2)	66 (41)	60 (38)	31 (19)
I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	1 (1)	16 (10)	107 (67)	36 (23)
I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.	21 (13)	45 (28)	66 (41)	28 (18)
When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.	1 (1)	47 (29)	84 (53)	28 (18)
If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.	3 (2)	54 (34)	63 (39)	40 (25)
I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	10 (6)	22 (14)	86 (54)	42 (26)

Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS)

Indicate the degree to which you feel the statement is characteristic of you: Not Characteristic, Slightly Characteristic, Moderately Characteristic, Very Characteristic, Extremely Characteristic (N, %).

	NC	SC	MC	VC	EC
I get nervous if I have to speak with someone in authority (teacher, boss, etc.).	20 (13)	42 (26)	36 (23)	38 (24)	24 (15)
I have difficulty making eye contact with others.	35 (22)	36 (23)	39 (24)	24 (15)	26 (16)
I become tense if I have to talk about myself or my feelings.	21 (13)	23 (14)	38 (24)	36 (23)	42 (26)
I find it difficult to mix comfortably with the people I work with.	28 (18)	40 (25)	41 (26)	31 (19)	20 (13)
I find it easy to make friends my own age.	15 (9)	29 (18)	33 (21)	51 (32)	32 (20)
I tense up if I meet an acquaintance in the street.	30 (19)	27 (17)	52 (33)	26 (16)	25 (16)
When mixing socially, I am uncomfortable.	18 (11)	32 (20)	46 (29)	30 (19)	34 (2)
I feel tense if I am alone with just one other person.	41 (26)	40 (25)	31 (19)	34 (21)	14 (9)
I am at ease meeting people at parties, etc.	25 (16)	28 (18)	28 (18)	46 (29)	33 (21)
I have difficulty talking with other people.	30 (19)	47 (29)	33 (21)	31 (19)	19 (12)
I find it easy to think of things to talk about.	13 (8)	30 (19)	52 (33)	35 (22)	30 (19)
I worry about expressing myself in case I appear awkward.	23 (14)	31 (19)	40 (25)	35 (22)	31 (19)
I find it difficult to disagree with another's point of view.	29 (18)	36 (23)	37 (23)	39 (24)	19 (12)
I have difficulty talking to attractive persons of the opposite sex.	29 (18)	39 (24)	34 (21)	24 (15)	34 (21)
I find myself worrying that I won't know what to say in social situations.	18 (11)	39 (24)	32 (20)	30 (19)	41 (26)
I am nervous mixing with people I don't know well.	18 (11)	37 (23)	24 (15)	34 (21)	47 (29)
I feel I'll say something embarrassing when talking.	24 (15)	27 (17)	35 (22)	43 (27)	31 (19)
When mixing in a group, I find myself worrying I will be ignored.	38 (24)	26 (16)	31 (19)	32 (20)	33 (21)
I am tense mixing in a group.	25 (16)	35 (22)	37 (23)	26 (16)	37 (23)
I am unsure whether to greet someone I know only slightly.	25 (16)	37 (23)	34 (21)	32 (20)	32 (20)

Anxiety Subscale of the Experience in Close Relationship Scale

Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it using the following rating scale: 1 = Disagree Strongly, 4 = Neutral/Mixed, 7 = Agree Strongly (N, %).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I worry about being abandoned	28 (18)	10 (6)	7 (4)	39 (24)	26 (16)	6 (4)	44 (28)
I worry a lot about my relationships	15 (9)	12 (8)	8 (5)	40 (25)	25 (16)	18 (11)	42 (26)
I worry that romantic partners won't care about me as much as I care about them	21 (13)	8 (5)	7 (4)	26 (16)	22 (14)	18 (11)	58 (36)
I worry a fair amount about losing my partner	26 (16)	10 (6)	3 (2)	43 (27)	20 (13)	26 (16)	32 (20)
I often wish that my partner's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him/her	22 (14)	7 (4)	10 (6)	35 (22)	25 (16)	22 (14)	39 (24)
I often want to merge completely with romantic partners, and this sometimes scares them away	42 (26)	20 (13)	17 (11)	19 (12)	23 (14)	17 (11)	22 (14)
I worry about being alone	34 (21)	24 (15)	10 (6)	20 (13)	21 (13)	16 (10)	35 (22)
My desire to be very close sometimes scares people away	44 (28)	17 (11)	16 (10)	27 (17)	20 (13)	15 (9)	21 (13)
I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner	31 (19)	12 (8)	15 (9)	26 (16)	12 (8)	26 (16)	38 (24)
Sometimes I feel that I force my partners to show more feeling, more commitment	37 (23)	15 (9)	21 (13)	25 (16)	19 (12)	24 (15)	19 (12)
I do not often worry about being abandoned	26 (16)	11 (7)	25 (16)	27 (17)	16 (10)	23 (14)	32 (20)
If I can't get my partner to show interest in me, I get upset or angry	37 (23)	20 (13)	17 (11)	30 (19)	19 (12)	18 (11)	19 (12)
I find that my partner(s) don't want to get as close as I would like	32 (20)	20 (13)	18 (11)	41 (26)	26 (16)	9 (6)	14 (9)
When I'm not involved in a relationship, I feel somewhat anxious and insecure	32 (20)	34 (21)	5 (3)	31 (19)	22 (14)	18 (11)	18 (11)
I get frustrated when my partner is not around as much as I would like	38 (24)	17 (11)	11 (7)	24 (15)	27 (17)	21 (13)	22 (14)
I get frustrated if romantic partners are not available when I need them	29 (18)	26 (16)	11 (7)	30 (19)	31 (19)	16 (10)	17 (11)
When romantic partners disapprove of me, I feel really bad about myself	17 (11)	13 (8)	15 (9)	27 (17)	15 (9)	32 (20)	41 (26)
I resent it when my partner spends time away from me	52 (33)	22 (14)	11 (7)	36 (23)	19 (12)	8 (5)	12 (8)

Henceforth Mark VI

For the following statement select the adequate answer which best describes you (N, %).

	Yes	No	DK
Are you the sort of person who always likes to get his own way?	83 (52)	8 (5)	69 (43)
Do you tend to boss people around?	77 (48)	9 (6)	74 (46)
Are you often critical of the way other people do things?	109 (68)	10 (6)	41 (26)
Does incompetence irritate you?	61 (38)	13 (8)	86 (54)
If you are told to take charge of some situation does this make you feel uncomfortable?	79 (49)	12 (8)	69 (43)
Would you rather take orders than give them?	106 (66)	11 (7)	43 (27)
Do you dislike standing out from the crowd?	51 (32)	38 (24)	71 (44)
If anyone is going to be Top Dog would you rather it be you?	76 (48)	26 (16)	58 (36)
Do you tend to dominate the conversation?	116 (73)	8 (5)	36 (23)
Are you generally a follower rather than a leader?	79 (49)	8 (5)	73 (46)
Would you prefer to be a worker rather than a manager?	93 (58)	20 (13)	47 (29)
Do you shy away from situations where you might be asked to take charge?	51 (32)	14 (9)	95 (59)
Do you let others take the lead when you are on a committee?	59 (37)	62 (39)	39 (24)
Would you avoid a job, which required you to supervise other people?	48 (30)	3 (12)	109 (68)

Cumulative Humiliation Subscale (CHS) of Humiliation Inventory

Circle the rating that best describes you in answer to the following question: Throughout your life how often have you harmed people by…': 1 = Not At All, 3 = Neutral/Mixed, 5 = Very Much (N, %).

	1	2	3	4	5
teasing them?	56 (35)	51 (32)	43 (27)	9 (6)	1 (1)
bullying them?	86 (54)	65 (41)	6 (4)	3 (2)	0 (0)
scorning them?	41 (26)	76 (48)	39 (24)	3 (2)	1 (1)
excluding them?	65 (41)	78 (49)	12 (8)	2 (1)	3 (2)
laughing at them?	69 (43)	62 (39)	20 (13)	6 (4)	3 (2)
putting down them?	87 (54)	44 (28)	24 (15)	5 (3)	0 (0)
ridiculing them?	92 (58)	45 (28)	19 (12)	4 (3)	0 (0)
harassing them?	103 (64)	45 (28)	7 (4)	5 (3)	0 (0)
discounting them?	61 (38)	77 (48)	17 (11)	5 (3)	0 (0)
embarrassing them?	77 (48)	68 (43)	14 (9)	1 (1)	0 (0)
cruelly criticizing them?	101 (63)	52 (33)	7 (4)	0 (0)	0 (0)
calling them by names or referring to them in derogatory terms?	53 (33)	73 (46)	30 (19)	3 (2)	1 (1)

Aggression Questionnaire (AQ)

Indicate how uncharacteristic or characteristic each of the following statements is in describing you: Extremely Uncharacteristic, Somewhat Uncharacteristic, Neither, Somewhat Characteristic, Extremely Characteristic (N, %).

	EU	SU	N	SC	EC
Once in a while I can't control the urge to strike another person	98 (61)	18 (11)	23 (14)	13 (8)	8 (5)
Given enough provocation, I may hit another person	67 (42)	38 (24)	16 (10)	33 (21)	6 (4)
If somebody hits me, I hit back	37 (23)	37 (23)	26 (16)	27 (17)	33 (21)
I get into fights a little more than the average person	101 (63)	23 (14)	24 (15)	5 (3)	7 (4)
If I have to resort to violence to protect my rights, I will	51 (32)	31 (19)	34 (21)	16 (10)	28 (18)
There are people who pushed me so far that we came to blows	58 (36)	33 (21)	27 (17)	26 (16)	16 (10)
I can think of no good reason for ever hitting a person	28 (18)	25 (16)	43 (27)	42 (26)	22 (14)
I have threatened people I know	63 (39)	39 (24)	35 (22)	20 (13)	3 (2)
I have become so mad that I have broken things	52 (33)	18 (11)	29 (18)	42 (26)	19 (12)
I tell my friends openly when I disagree with them	33 (21)	36 (23)	43 (27)	34 (21)	14 (9)
I often find myself disagreeing with people	33 (21)	41 (26)	39 (24)	36 (23)	11 (7)
When people annoy me, I may tell them what I think of them	64 (40)	39 (24)	23 (14)	25 (16)	9 (6)
I can't help getting into arguments when people disagree with me	65 (41)	42 (26)	36 (23)	13 (8)	4 (3)
My friends say that I'm somewhat argumentative	55 (34)	40 (25)	39 (24)	16 (10)	10 (6)
I flare up quickly but get over it quickly	41 (26)	35 (22)	32 (20)	38 (24)	14 (9)
When frustrated, I let my irritation show	47 (29)	27 (17)	33 (21)	34 (21)	19 (12)
I sometimes feel like a powder keg ready to explode	40 (25)	33 (21)	24 (15)	35 (22)	28 (18)
I am an even-tempered person	24 (15)	31 (19)	46 (29)	47 (29)	12 (8)
Some of my friends think I'm a hothead	80 (50)	18 (11)	21 (13)	33 (21)	8 (5)
Sometimes I fly off the handle for no good reason	82 (51)	14 (9)	31 (19)	25 (16)	8 (5)
I have trouble controlling my temper	75 (47)	31 (19)	14 (9)	34 (21)	6 (4)
I am sometimes eaten up with jealousy	46 (29)	39 (24)	22 (14)	33 (21)	20 (13)
At times I feel I have gotten a raw deal out of life	26 (16)	20 (13)	25 (16)	45 (28)	44 (28)
Other people always seem to get the breaks	37 (23)	25 (16)	23 (14)	52 (33)	23 (14)
I wonder why sometimes I feel so bitter about things	33 (21)	29 (18)	24 (15)	38 (24)	36 (23)
I know that 'friends' talk about me behind my back	26 (16)	48 (30)	28 (18)	33 (21)	25 (16)
I am suspicious of overly friendly strangers	29 (18)	16 (10)	28 (18)	41 (26)	46 (29)
I sometimes feel that people are laughing at me behind my back	25 (16)	39 (24)	29 (18)	38 (24)	29 (18)
When people are especially nice, I wonder what they want	19 (12)	28 (18)	29 (18)	45 (28)	39 (24)

Anger Self-Report Questionnaire (30 items) (ASR)

Indicate how each statement applies to you using the following scale: Strong Disagreement, Moderate Disagreement, Slight Disagreement, Slight Agreement, Moderate Agreement, Strong Agreement (N, %).

	SD	MD	SD	SA	MA	SA
I get mad easily	38 (24)	30 (19)	22 (14)	33 (21)	18 (11)	19 (12)
I seldom strike back, even if someone hits me first	42 (26)	18 (11)	20 (13)	34 (21)	21 (13)	25 (16)
I never feel hate towards members of my family	15 (9)	23 (14)	29 (18)	22 (14)	23 (14)	48 (30)
Even when my anger is aroused, I don't use strong language	4 (3)	23 (14)	15 (9)	24 (15)	45 (28)	49 (31)
If I am mad, I really let people know it	29 (18)	24 (15)	39 (24)	28 (18)	24 (15)	16 (10)
Sometimes I feel that I could injure someone	55 (34)	25 (16)	22 (14)	25 (16)	21 (13)	12 (8)
I will criticize someone to their face if they deserve it	45 (28)	15 (9)	27 (17)	36 (23)	30 (19)	7 (4)
I find that I cannot express anger at someone until they have really hurt me badly	39 (24)	39 (24)	20 (13)	39 (24)	8 (5)	15 (9)
Even when people yell at me, I don't yell back	11 (7)	18 (11)	27 (17)	40 (25)	37 (23)	27 (17)
At times I have a strong urge to do something harmful or shocking	52 (33)	19 (12)	28 (18)	26 (16)	25 (15)	10 (6)
I have many quarrels with members of my family	29 (18)	29 (18)	36 (23)	27 (17)	23 (14)	16 (10)
I don't feel guilty when I swear under my breath	19 (12)	9 (6)	21 (13)	24 (15)	30 (19)	57 (36)
Feeling angry is terrible	46 (29)	23 (14)	29 (18)	29 (18)	23 (14)	10 (6)
I have physically hurt someone in a fight	57 (36)	26 (16)	18 (11)	19 (12)	7 (4)	33 (21)
At times I feel like smashing things	37 (23)	16 (10)	11 (7)	44 (28)	32 (20)	20 (13)
I find it easy to express anger at people	30 (19)	27 (17)	35 (22)	33 (21)	24 (15)	11 (7)
My conscience would punish me if I tried to exploit someone else	71 (44)	53 (33)	12 (8)	4 (3)	10 (6)	10 (6)
I hardly ever feel like swearing	3 (2)	17 (11)	17 (11)	17 (11)	39 (24)	67 (42)
I couldn't hit anyone if I were extremely angry	28 (18)	15 (9)	11 (7)	32 (20)	39 (24)	35 (22)
I hardly ever get angry	10 (6)	34 (21)	6 (4)	37 (23)	44 (28)	29 (18)
I find it hard to think badly of anyone	15 (9)	26 (16)	17 (11)	46 (29)	22 (14)	34 (21)
I can think of no good reason for ever hitting anyone	17 (11)	38 (24)	23 (14)	37 (23)	25 (16)	20 (13)
I am rarely cross and grouchy	11 (7)	21 (13)	23 (14)	39 (24)	36 (23)	30 (19)
In spite of how my parents treated me, I didn't get angry	8 (5)	28 (18)	26 (16)	44 (28)	28 (18)	26 (16)
I could not put someone in their place even if they needed it	12 (8)	22 (14)	21 (13)	25 (16)	42 (26)	38 (24)
When I really lose my temper, I am capable of slapping someone	38 (24)	17 (11)	32 (20)	32 (20)	19 (12)	22 (14)
It's easy for me not to fight with those I love	18 (11)	22 (14)	41 (26)	38 (24)	35 (22)	6 (4)
If someone annoys me, I am apt to tell them what I think of them	27 (17)	29 (18)	42 (26)	32 (20)	20 (13)	10 (6)
It's useless to get angry	20 (13)	49 (31)	13 (8)	42 (26)	9 (6)	27 (17)
If someone crosses me, I tend to get back at them	28 (18)	42 (26)	39 (24)	15 (9)	20 (13)	16 (10)

Multidimensional Emotional Empathy Scale

Determine for each statement if you Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neither, Agree, Strongly Agree (N, %).

	SD	D	N	A	SA
I cry easily when watching a sad movie	43 (27)	35 (22)	20 (13)	15 (9)	47 (29)
Certain pieces of music can really move me	28 (18)	20 (13)	16 (10)	49 (31)	47 (29)
Seeing a hurt animal by the side of the road is very upsetting	56 (35)	40 (25)	9 (6)	24 (15)	31 (19)
I don't give others' feelings much thought	45 (28)	60 (38)	46 (29)	8 (5)	1 (1)
It makes me happy when I see people being nice to each other	4 (3)	29 (18)	43 (27)	20 (13)	64 (40)
The suffering of others deeply disturbs me	28 (18)	12 (8)	44 (28)	62 (39)	14 (9)
I always try to tune in to the feelings of those around me	9 (6)	29 (18)	44 (28)	71 (44)	7 (4)
I get very upset when I see a young child who is being treated meanly	14 (9)	12 (8)	35 (22)	38 (24)	61 (38)
Too much is made of the suffering of pets or animals	89 (56)	41 (26)	22 (14)	5 (3)	3 (2)
If someone is upset I get upset, too	29 (18)	9 (6)	73 (46)	28 (18)	21 (13)
When I'm with other people who are laughing I join in	36 (23)	39 (24)	26 (16)	55 (34)	4 (3)
It makes me mad to see someone treated unjustly	16 (10)	31 (19)	16 (10)	73 (46)	24 (15)
I rarely take notice when people treat each other warmly	16 (10)	50 (31)	87 (54)	0 (0)	7 (4)
I feel happy when I see people laughing and enjoying themselves	32 (20)	43 (27)	10 (6)	46 (29)	29 (18)
It's easy for me to get carried away by other people's emotions	37 (23)	60 (38)	55 (34)	6 (4)	2 (1)
My feelings are my own and don't reflect how others feel	16 (10)	33 (21)	31 (19)	69 (43)	11 (7)
If a crowd gets excited about something so do I	21 (13)	70 (44)	30 (19)	21 (13)	18 (11)
I feel good when I help someone out or do something nice for someone	12 (8)	18 (11)	32 (20)	69 (43)	29 (18)
I feel deeply for others	35 (22)	27 (17)	24 (15)	59 (37)	15 (9)
I don't cry easily	55 (34)	27 (17)	20 (13)	24 (15)	34 (21)
I feel other people's pain	6 (4)	70 (44)	15 (9)	52 (33)	17 (11)
Seeing other people smile makes me smile	7 (4)	12 (8)	76 (48)	21 (13)	44 (28)
Being around happy people makes me feel happy, too	6 (4)	13 (8)	75 (47)	31 (19)	35 (22)
TV or news stories about injured or sick children greatly upset me	9 (6)	36 (23)	59 (37)	21 (13)	35 (22)
I cry at sad parts of the books I read	53 (33)	25 (16)	56 (35)	9 (6)	17 (11)
Being around people who are depressed brings my mood down	53 (33)	12 (8)	60 (38)	27 (17)	8 (5)
I find it annoying when people cry in public	29 (18)	32 (20)	60 (38)	13 (8)	26 (16)
It hurts to see another person in pain	42 (26)	16 (10)	55 (34)	33 (11)	14 (9)
I get a warm feeling for someone if I see them helping another person	44 (28)	11 (7)	10 (6)	73 (46)	22 (14)
I feel other people's joy	49 (31)	14 (9)	58 (36)	28 (18)	11 (7)

Threat-Related Reassurance Seeking Scale (TRSS)

For the following questions, please select the answer most appropriate to you using this scale: Very Untrue, Untrue, Somewhat Untrue, Neutral, Somewhat True, True, Very True (N, %).

	VU	U	SU	N	ST	T	VT
Do you find yourself often asking others whether everything will be alright?	25 (16)	25 (16)	9 (6)	17 (11)	30 (19)	28 (18)	26 (16)
Do you find yourself often asking others whether there is something wrong with you (for example, your appearance, behaviour, personality, or intelligence)?	34 (21)	20 (13)	27 (17)	10 (6)	23 (14)	31 (19)	15 (9)
If you suspect there might be something wrong with you (for example, your appearance, behaviour, personality, or intelligence), do you seek reassurance from others?	23 (14)	25 (16)	16 (10)	14 (9)	28 (18)	30 (19)	24 (15)
Do you frequently seek reassurance from others as to whether something bad is going to happen?	31 (19)	27 (17)	18 (11)	37 (23)	21 (13)	15 (9)	11 (7)
If you suspect something bad might happen, do you seek reassurance from others?	22 (14)	30 (19)	24 (15)	24 (15)	18 (11)	20 (13)	22 (14)
Do you need reassurance from others that everything will be alright?	25 (16)	28 (18)	17 (11)	20 (13)	11 (7)	30 (19)	29 (18)
Do you frequently seek reassurance from others as to whether there is something wrong with you (for example, your appearance, behaviour, personality, or intelligence)?	30 (19)	31 (19)	21 (13)	11 (7)	18 (11)	33 (21)	16 (10)
Do you need reassurance from others that there is nothing is wrong with you (for example, your appearance, behaviour, personality, or intelligence)?	38 (24)	36 (23)	11 (7)	12 (8)	28 (18)	14 (9)	21 (13)

Narcissistic Personality Inventory-16 (NPI-16)

Here you'll find a list of 16 statements. For each statement, choose the item that matches you (even if it's not a perfect fit). Complete the quiz on your own and in one sitting, which takes most people between 5 and 10 minutes to finish. Answer all questions for the most accurate result (N, %).

I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so	17 (11)
When people compliment me I sometimes get embarrassed	143 (89)
I like to be the center of attention	33 (21)
I prefer to blend in with the crowd	127 (79)
I am no better or no worse than most people	133 (83)
I think I am a special person	27 (17)
I like having authority over people	25 (17)
I don't mind following orders	135 (85)
I don't like it when I find myself manipulating people	147 (92)
I find it easy to manipulate people	13 (8)
I usually get the respect that I deserve	127 (79)
I insist upon getting the respect that is due me	33 (21)
I am apt to show off if I get the chance	30 (19)
I try not to be a show off	130 (81)
Sometimes I am not sure of what I am doing	151 (94)
I always know what I am doing	9 (6)
Everybody likes to hear my stories	146 (91)
Sometimes I tell good stories	14 (9)
I expect a great deal from other people	39 (24)
I like to do things for other people	121 (76)
I really like to be the center of attention	145 (91)
It makes me uncomfortable to be the center of attention	15 (9)
Being an authority doesn't mean that much to me	140 (87)
People always seem to recognize my authority	20 (13)
I hope I am going to be successful	37 (23)
I am going to be a great person	123 (77)
People sometimes believe what I tell them	140 (87)
I can make anybody believe anything	20 (13)
There is a lot that I can learn from other people	143 (89)
I am more capable than other people	17 (11)
I am an extraordinary person	43 (27)
I am much like everybody else	117 (73)

Revenge Planning Subscale of the Displaced Aggression Questionnaire (DAQ)

For the following items, please select the answer most appropriate to you using this scale: Very Uncharacteristic of me, Uncharacteristic of me, Somewhat Uncharacteristic of me, Neutral, Somewhat Characteristic of me, Characteristic of me, Very Characteristic of me. Please be sure to answer all questions (N, %).

	VU	U	SU	N	SC	C	VC
When someone makes me angry I can't stop thinking about how to get back at this person	47 (29)	25 (17)	18 (11)	15 (9)	34 (21)	7 (4)	14 (9)
If somebody harms me, I am not at peace until I can retaliate	50 (31)	20 (12)	21 (13)	17 (11)	17 (11)	27 (17)	8 (5)
I often daydream about situations where I'm getting my own back at people	39 (25)	27 (17)	21 (13)	15 (9)	15 (9)	28 (18)	15 (9)
I would get frustrated if I could not think of a way to get even with someone who deserves it	54 (34)	31 (19)	9 (6)	9 (6)	20 (12)	26 (16)	11 (7)
I think about ways of getting back at people who have made me angry long after the event has happened	47 (29)	25 (16)	17 (11)	7 (4)	22 (14)	36 (22)	6 (4)
If another person hurts you, it's alright to get back at him or her	46 (29)	23 (14)	22 (14)	30 (19)	14 (9)	15 (9)	10 (6)
The more time that passes, the more satisfaction I get from revenge	55 (34)	27 (17)	21 (13)	29 (18)	14 (9)	9 (6)	5 (3)
I have long living fantasies of revenge after the conflict is over	57 (36)	23 (14)	11 (7)	18 (11)	26 (16)	13 (8)	12 (8)
When somebody offends me, sooner or later I retaliate	46 (29)	30 (19)	17 (11)	11 (7)	44 (27)	7 (4)	5 (3)
If a person hurts you on purpose, you deserve to get whatever revenge you can	54 (34)	27 (17)	11 (7)	15 (9)	26 (16)	15 (9)	12 (8)
I never help those who do me wrong	33 (21)	22 (14)	36 (22)	16 (10)	24 (15)	9 (6)	20 (12)

Revised Dickman Impulsivity Inventory-short version (DII-short)

Please reply to ALL the statements, even if you are not completely sure of the answer. Choose only one option according to whether you are Totally in Disagreement, in Disagreement, Neutral, in Agreement, or Totally in Agreement with the statement. There are no right or wrong answers; the statements intend to describe your personal opinions and feelings (N, %).

	TD	D	N	A	TA
I don't like to make decisions quickly, even simple decisions, such as choosing what to wear, or what to have for dinner	20 (12)	62 (39)	19 (12)	27 (17)	32 (20)
I will often say whatever comes into my head without thinking first	15 (9)	41 (26)	23 (14)	48 (30)	33 (21)
I am good at taking advantage of unexpected opportunities, where you have to do something immediately or lose your chance	14 (9)	41 (26)	31 (19)	53 (33)	21 (13)
I enjoy working out problems slowly and carefully	20 (12)	40 (25)	34 (21)	49 (31)	17 (11)
Most of the time, I can put my thoughts into words very rapidly	16 (10)	35 (22)	31 (19)	54 (34)	24 (15)
I frequently make appointments without thinking about whether I will be able to keep them	39 (24)	39 (24)	25 (16)	27 (17)	30 (19)
I am uncomfortable when I have to make up my mind rapidly	5 (3)	24 (15)	49 (31)	32 (20)	50 (31)
I frequently buy things without thinking about whether or not I can really afford them	27 (17)	32 (20)	28 (18)	47 (29)	26 (16)
I like to take part in really fast-paced conversations, where you don't have much time to think before you speak	30 (19)	24 (15)	65 (41)	28 (17)	13 (8)
I often make up my mind without taking the time to consider the situation from all angles	20 (12)	25 (16)	60 (38)	27 (17)	28 (17)
I don't like to do things quickly, even when I am doing something that is not very difficult	10 (6)	47 (29)	25 (16)	41 (26)	37 (23)
Often, I don't spend enough time thinking over a situation before I act	21 (13)	30 (19)	46 (29)	35 (22)	28 (17)
I would enjoy working at a job that required me to make a lot of split-second decisions	37 (23)	42 (26)	40 (25)	27 (17)	14 (9)
I often get into trouble because I don't think before I act	30 (19)	37 (23)	49 (31)	30 (19)	14 (8)
I like sports and games in which you have to choose your next move very quickly	42 (26)	33 (21)	55 (34)	20 (13)	10 (6)
Many times the plans I make don't work out because I haven't gone over them carefully enough in advance	30 (19)	36 (22)	40 (25)	27 (17)	27 (17)
I have often missed out on opportunities because I couldn't make up my mind fast enough	21 (13)	42 (26)	36 (23)	26 (16)	35 (22)

I rarely get involved in projects without first considering the potential problems	12 (8)	28 (17)	38 (24)	45 (28)	37 (23)
People have admired me because I can think quickly	31 (19)	25 (15)	49 (31)	30 (19)	25 (16)
Before making any important decision, I carefully weigh the pros and cons	2 (1)	30 (19)	37 (23)	54 (34)	37 (23)
I try to avoid activities where you have to act without much time to think first	19 (12)	30 (19)	58 (36)	21 (13)	32 (20)
I am good at careful reasoning	8 (5)	12 (7)	59 (37)	52 (33)	29 (18)
I often say and do things without considering the consequences	27 (17)	50 (31)	36 (23)	35 (22)	12 (7)

Revised Janis-Field Feelings of Inadequacy Scale (R-JFFIS)

In this section you are required to answer a number of questions about yourself by selecting the answer the most appropriate to you: Very Often, Fairly Often, Sometimes, Once in a While, Very Seldom (N, %).

	VO	FO	S	OW	VS
How often do you have the feeling that there is nothing you can do well?	26 (16)	41 (26)	31 (19)	35 (22)	27 (17)
How often do you feel that you have handled yourself well at a social gathering?	14 (9)	40 (25)	47 (29)	38 (24)	21 (13)
How often do you worry about whether other people like to be with you?	26 (16)	35 (22)	25 (16)	44 (27)	30 (19)
How often do you feel self-conscious?	21 (13)	32 (20)	25 (16)	46 (29)	36 (22)
How often do you have the feeling that you can do everything well?	12 (8)	21 (13)	48 (30)	42 (26)	37 (23)
How often are you troubled with shyness?	13 (8)	39 (24)	37 (23)	45 (28)	26 (17)
When you talk in front of a group of people how often are you pleased with the performance?	4 (2)	33 (21)	58 (36)	32 (20)	33 (21)
How often are you comfortable with starting a conversation with people whom you don't know?	8 (5)	21 (13)	47 (29)	35 (22)	49 (31)
How often do you feel inferior to most of the other people you know?	32 (20)	24 (15)	45 (28)	24 (15)	35 (22)
How often do you feel that you are a successful person?	14 (9)	24 (15)	52 (33)	39 (24)	31 (19)
Do you ever think that you are a worthless individual?	30 (19)	31 (19)	32 (20)	41 (26)	26 (16)
How much do you worry about how well you get along with other people?	17 (11)	21 (13)	54 (34)	47 (29)	21 (13)
In a social discussion how often do you feel sure of yourself?	11 (7)	30 (19)	51 (32)	32 (20)	36 (22)
How often do you feel that you dislike yourself?	24 (15)	31 (19)	30 (19)	35 (22)	40 (25)
How often do you feel sure of yourself when among strangers?	14 (9)	20 (12)	49 (31)	46 (29)	31 (19)
How often do feel confident that someday the people you know will look up to you and respect you?	6 (4)	27 (17)	56 (35)	41 (26)	30 (18)
Do you ever feel so discouraged with yourself that you wonder whether anything is worthwhile?	36 (23)	28 (17)	25 (16)	29 (18)	42 (26)
In general, how often do you feel confident about your abilities?	15 (9)	32 (20)	46 (29)	29 (18)	38 (24)

Subscales of the Performance Failure Appraisal Inventory Revised Form (PFAI-Revised)

Respond to each statement by indicating how much you agree or disagree with it. Write the number in the space provided, using the following rating scale: (N, %).

Do not believe at all -2 -1 Believe 50% of the time 0 1 Believe 100% of the time +2

	-2	-1	0	1	2
When I am not succeeding, I am less valuable than when I succeed	15 (9)	28 (18)	44 (28)	42 (26)	31 (19)
When I am not succeeding, I get down on myself easily	9 (6)	21 (13)	42 (26)	62 (39)	26 (16)
When I am failing, it is embarrassing if others are there to see it	9 (6)	26 (16)	45 (28)	43 (27)	37 (23)
When I am failing, I believe that everybody knows I am failing	17 (11)	30 (19)	35 (22)	43 (26)	35 (22)
When I am failing, I believe that my doubters feel that they were right about me	12 (7)	31 (19)	25 (16)	51 (32)	41 (26)
When I am failing, I worry about what others think about me	14 (9)	23 (14)	37 (23)	52 (32)	34 (22)
When I am failing, I worry that others may think I am not trying	16 (10)	23 (14)	44 (27)	41 (26)	36 (23)
When I am failing, it is often because I am not smart enough to perform successfully	17 (11)	43 (27)	37 (23)	43 (27)	20 (12)
When I am failing, I blame my lack of talent	30 (19)	24 (15)	29 (18)	51 (32)	26 (16)
When I am failing, I am afraid that I might not have enough talent	13 (8)	38 (24)	33 (21)	52 (32)	24 (15)
When I am failing, I hate the fact that I am not in control of the outcome	12 (7)	21 (13)	43 (27)	33 (21)	51 (32)

Projection Questionnaire

Evaluate the following items on one of the five possible ways: No Never, Sometimes, Every Other Day, Mostly, Yes/Ever (N, %).

	NN	S	EO	M	YE
Outer factors are responsible for my difficulties	23 (14)	78 (49)	16 (10)	39 (25)	4 (2)
People are dishonest to me	16 (10)	88 (55)	34 (21)	18 (11)	4 (3)
The cause of my failures is my social environment	47 (29)	77 (48)	21 (13)	15 (10)	0 (0)
I personally know infallible persons	76 (48)	28 (17)	33 (21)	23 (14)	0 (0)
People are insincere towards me	24 (15)	83 (52)	34 (21)	15 (9)	4 (3)
I noticed gossip about me	12 (8)	104 (64)	12 (8)	20 (12)	12 (8)
The causes of my fear are outer incidents	22 (14)	48 (30)	25 (16)	46 (28)	19 (12)
The causes of my anger are other people	23 (14)	79 (49)	17 (11)	29 (18)	12 (8)
I feel strong repulsion to homosexuals	127 (79)	17 (11)	12 (7)	1 (1)	3 (2)
I have a feeling that destiny is plotting against me	59 (37)	64 (40)	4 (2)	30 (19)	3 (2)
I personally know faultless persons	98 (61)	39 (24)	15 (10)	5 (3)	3 (2)
People hate me	44 (27)	86 (54)	15 (9)	12 (8)	3 (2)
The cause of my emotional problems is that I do not gain enough love from my environment	65 (41)	57 (36)	17 (10)	18 (11)	3 (2)
The cause of my passivity is that the social environment does not induce me enough to activity	72 (45)	49 (31)	30 (19)	5 (3)	4 (2)
My social environment is the cause of my feeling guilty	64 (40)	55 (34)	22 (14)	17 (11)	2 (1)
The cause of my sexual problems is in my partner	89 (56)	48 (30)	8 (5)	13 (8)	2 (1)
I personally know persons who solved all their problems	95 (59)	40 (25)	17 (11)	7 (4)	1 (1)
The cause of my isolation is that my social environment does not understand me	72 (45)	30 (19)	36 (22)	16 (10)	6 (4)

Subtypes of Antisocial Behavior Questionnaire (STAB)

The following items describe a number of different behaviours. Please read each item and report how often you have done this using the following scale: Never, Hardly Ever, Sometimes, Frequently and Nearly All the Time (N, %).

	N	HE	S	F	NA
Felt like hitting people	40 (25)	75 (47)	38 (24)	7 (4)	0 (0)
Broke into a store, mall, or warehouse	144 (90)	11 (7)	4 (2)	1 (1)	0 (0)
Blamed others	8 (5)	60 (38)	68 (42)	18 (11)	6 (4)
Hit back when hit by others	71 (44)	23 (14)	62 (39)	4 (3)	0 (0)
Broke the windows of an empty building	108 (67)	16 (10)	34 (22)	2 (1)	0 (0)
Tried to hurt someone's feelings	65 (41)	57 (36)	22 (13)	16 (10)	0 (0)
Got angry quickly	39 (24)	14 (9)	55 (34)	46 (29)	6 (4)
Shoplifted things	83 (52)	63 (39)	5 (3)	9 (6)	0 (0)
Made fun of someone behind their back	27 (17)	50 (31)	54 (34)	27 (17)	2 (1)
Threatened others	38 (24)	58 (36)	39 (24)	22 (14)	3 (2)
Littered public areas by smashing bottles, tipping trash cans, etc	112 (70)	13 (8)	28 (18)	7 (4)	0 (0)
Excluded someone from group activities when angry with him/her	39 (24)	51 (32)	52 (33)	18 (11)	0 (0)
Had trouble controlling temper	26 (16)	38 (24)	54 (34)	34 (21)	8 (5)
Stole a bicycle	140 (87)	16 (10)	4 (3)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Gave someone the silent treatment when angry with him/her	22 (14)	34 (21)	47 (30)	45 (28)	12 (7)
Hit others when provoked	83 (52)	35 (22)	35 (22)	7 (4)	0 (0)
Stole property from school or work	85 (53)	64 (40)	4 (3)	7 (4)	0 (0)
Revealed someone's secrets when angry with him/her	115 (72)	24 (15)	13 (8)	8 (5)	0 (0)
Got into fights more than the average person	119 (74)	7 (4)	26 (16)	7 (5)	1 (1)
Left home for an extended period of time without telling family friends	85 (53)	35 (22)	19 (12)	10 (6)	11 (7)
Intentionally damaged someone's reputation	85 (53)	61 (38)	5 (3)	6 (4)	3 (2)
Swore or yelled at others	64 (40)	26 (16)	54 (34)	10 (6)	6 (4)
Sold drugs, including marijuana	111 (69)	41 (26)	2 (1)	6 (4)	0 (0)
Tried to turn others against someone when angry with him/her	81 (51)	37 (23)	20 (12)	19 (12)	3 (2)
Got into physical fights	71 (44)	56 (35)	13 (8)	16 (10)	4 (3)
Was suspended, expelled, or fired from school or work	128 (80)	18 (11)	3 (2)	7 (4)	4 (3)
Called someone names behind his/her back	51 (32)	72 (45)	22 (14)	11 (7)	4 (2)
Felt better after hitting	86 (54)	44 (27)	19 (12)	11 (7)	0 (0)
Failed to pay debts	42 (26)	45 (28)	13 (8)	54 (34)	6 (4)
Was rude towards others	58 (36)	39 (24)	51 (32)	6 (4)	6 (4)
Had trouble keeping a job	92 (57)	25 (16)	13 (8)	6 (4)	24 (15)
Made negative comments about other's appearance	76 (47)	53 (33)	20 (13)	10 (6)	1 (1)

Sadism Scale

Please read each item below carefully and circle the rating that best describes you (N, %).

	Yes	No
Did you ever like to read stories about or descriptions of torture?	12 (8)	148 (92)
Did you usually re-read a description of torture several times?	4 (3)	156 (97)
Were you interested?	2 (1)	158 (99)
Between the ages of 13 and 16, did you find the sight of blood exciting?	4 (3)	156 (97)
Has beating somebody or imagining that you are doing so ever excited you sexually?	4 (3)	156 (97)
Have you ever tried to tie the hands or legs of a person who attracted you sexually?	26 (16)	134 (84)
Has cutting or imagining to cut someone's hair ever excited you sexually?	30 (19)	130 (81)
Has imagining that you saw someone bleeding ever excited you sexually?	6 (4)	154 (96)
Has imagining someone being choked by yourself or somebody else ever excited you sexually?	11 (7)	149 (93)
Has imagining yourself or someone else imposing heavy physical labor or strain on somebody ever excited you sexually?	23 (14)	137 (86)
Has imagining that someone was being ill-treated in some way by yourself or somebody else ever excited you sexually?	24 (15)	136 (85)
Has imagining that you or someone else were causing pain to somebody ever excited you sexually?	9 (6)	151 (94)
Has imagining that you or somebody else were threatening someone's life ever excited you sexually?	3 (2)	157 (98)
Has imagining that someone other than yourself was crying painfully ever excited you sexually?	4 (3)	156 (97)
Has imagining that someone other than yourself was dying ever excited you sexually?	0 (0)	160 (0)
Has imagining that you or someone else were making it difficult for somebody to breathe ever excited you sexually?	43 (27)	117 (73)
Has imagining that you or someone else were tying up somebody ever excited you sexually?	28 (18)	132 (82)
Has imagining that you or somebody else were threatening someone with a knife or other sharp instrument ever excited you sexually?	13 (8)	147 (92)
Has imagining that someone was unconscious or unable to move ever excited you sexually?	5 (3)	155 (97)
Has imagining that someone had a very pale and still face ever excited you sexually?	1 (1)	159 (99)

Masochism Scale

Please read each item below carefully and circle the rating that best describes you (N, %).

	Yes	No
If you were insulted or humiliated by a person to whom you felt sexually attracted, did this ever increase their attractiveness?	34 (21)	126 (79)
Has imagining that you were being humiliated or poorly treated by someone ever excited you sexually?	22 (14)	138 (86)
Has imagining that you had been injured by someone to the point of bleeding ever excited you sexually?	13 (8)	147 (92)
Has imagining that someone was causing you pain ever aroused you sexually?	25 (16)	135 (84)
Has imagining that someone was choking you ever excited you sexually?	17 (11)	143 (89)
Has imagining that you have become dirty or soiled ever excited you sexually?	13 (8)	147 (92)
Has imagining that your life was being threatened ever excited you sexually?	11 (7)	149 (93)
Has imagining that someone was imposing on you heavy physical labor or strain ever excited you sexually?	21 (13)	139 (87)
Has imagining a situation in which you were having trouble breathing ever excited you sexually?	23 (14)	137 (86)
Has imagining that you were being threatened with a knife or other sharp instrument ever excited you sexually?	12 (8)	148 (92)
Has imagining that you were being tied up by somebody ever excited you sexually?	41 (26)	119 (74)

Self-Harm Inventory (SHI)

Please answer the following questions by checking either Yes or No. Check Yes only to those items that you have done intentionally, or on purpose, to hurt yourself (N, %).

	Yes	No
Overdosed? (If yes, number of times___)	43 (27)	117 (73)
Cut yourself on purpose? (If yes, number of times___)	83 (52)	77 (48)
Burned yourself on purpose? (If yes, number of times___)	56 (35)	104 (65)
Hit yourself? (If yes, number of times___)	61 (38)	99 (62)
Banged your head on purpose? (If yes, number of times___)	60 (38)	100 (62)
Abused alcohol?	108 (68)	52 (32)
Driven recklessly on purpose? (If yes, number of times___)	63 (39)	97 (61)
Scratched yourself on purpose? (If yes, number of times___)	89 (56)	71 (44)
Prevented wounds from healing?	95 (59)	65 (41)
Made medical situations worse on purpose (e.g., skipped medication)?	59 (37)	101 (63)
Been promiscuous (i.e., had many sexual partners)? (If yes, how many?___)	80 (50)	80 (50)
Set yourself up in a relationship to be rejected?	40 (25)	120 (75)
Abused prescription medication?	40 (25)	120 (75)
Distanced yourself from God as punishment?	36 (23)	124 (77)
Engaged in emotionally abusive relationships? (If yes, number of relationships?___)	53 (33)	107 (64)
Engaged in sexually abusive relationships? (If yes, number of relationships?__)	43 (27)	117 (73)
Lost a job on purpose? (If yes, number of times___)	46 (29)	114 (71)
Attempted suicide? (If yes, number of times__)	50 (31)	110 (69)
Exercised an injury on purpose?	46 (29)	114 (71)
Tortured yourself with self-defeating thoughts?	67 (42)	93 (58)
Starved yourself to hurt yourself?	54 (34)	106 (66)
Abused laxatives to hurt yourself? (If yes, number of times___)	24 (15)	136 (85)

Scale of Economic Abuse (SEA)

This part is going to go through a list of things some people do to hurt their partner or ex-partner financially. Could you tell me, to the best of your recollection, how frequently your partner or ex-partner has done any of the following things since your relationship began? Never, Hardly Ever, Sometimes, Often, Quite Often, Not Applicable, Prefer Not to Answer (N, %).

	N	HE	S	O	QO	NA
Steal the car keys or take the car so you couldn't go look for a job or go to a job interview	22 (14)	75 (46)	26 (16)	6 (4)	22 (14)	9 (6)
Do things to keep you from going to your job	15 (9)	62 (39)	22 (14)	26 (16)	16 (10)	19 (12)
Beat you up if you said you needed to go to work	20 (12)	85 (53)	18 (11)	4 (3)	21 (13)	12 (8)
Threaten you to make you leave work	18 (11)	76 (48)	9 (6)	21 (13)	26 (16)	10 (6)
Demand that you quit your job	11 (7)	52 (32)	20 (12)	33 (21)	25 (16)	19 (12)
Make you ask him for money	15 (9)	43 (27)	28 (17)	22 (14)	28 (17)	24 (16)
Take money from your purse, wallet, or bank account without your permission and/or knowledge	12 (8)	56 (35)	14 (9)	13 (8)	29 (18)	36 (22)
Force you to give him money or let him use your checkbook, ATM card, or credit card	7 (4)	66 (41)	4 (3)	27 (17)	37 (23)	19 (12)
Steal your property	8 (5)	60 (38)	6 (4)	10 (6)	48 (30)	28 (17)
Do things to keep you from having money of your own	6 (4)	46 (29)	12 (8)	33 (20)	34 (21)	29 (18)
Take your paycheck, financial aid check, tax refund check, disability payment, or other support payments from you	11 (7)	74 (46)	11 (7)	22 (14)	18 (11)	24 (15)
Decide how you could spend money rather than letting you spend it how you saw fit	3 (2)	48 (30)	19 (12)	24 (15)	34 (21)	32 (20)
Demand to know how money was spent	10 (6)	51 (32)	14 (9)	11 (7)	39 (24)	35 (22)
Demand that you give him receipts and/or change when you spent money	8 (5)	70 (44)	18 (11)	21 (13)	29 (18)	14 (9)
Keep you from having the money you needed to by food, clothes, or other necessities	12 (8)	59 (36)	19 (12)	29 (18)	29 (18)	12 (8)
Hide money so that you could not find it	19 (12)	61 (37)	9 (5)	10 (6)	26 (16)	35 (22)
Gamble with your money or your shared money	29 (18)	64 (40)	4 (3)	22 (14)	36 (22)	5 (3)
Have you ask your family or friends for money but not let you pay them back	27 (17)	55 (34)	22 (14)	17 (11)	29 (18)	10 (6)
Convince you to lend him money but not pay it back	29 (18)	60 (37)	2 (1)	20 (13)	20 (13)	29 (18)
Keep you from having access to your bank accounts	15 (9)	84 (52)	1 (1)	33 (21)	7 (4)	20 (13)
Keep financial information from you	10 (6)	68 (43)	14 (9)	8 (5)	39 (24)	21 (13)
Make important financial decisions without talking with you about it first	18 (11)	69 (43)	5 (3)	8 (5)	44 (28)	16 (10)
Threaten you or beat you up for paying the bills or buying things that were needed	11 (7)	78 (49)	7 (4)	10 (6)	32 (20)	22 (14)

Spend the money you needed for rent or other bills	11 (7)	56 (35)	12 (7)	35 (22)	16 (10)	30 (19)
Pay bills late or not pay bills that were in your name or in both of your names	10 (6)	48 (30)	21 (13)	16 (10)	24 (15)	41 (26)
Build up debt under your name by doing things like use your credit card or run up the phone bill	15 (9)	68 (42)	7 (4)	4 (3)	30 (19)	36 (23)
Refuse to get a job so you had to support your family alone	17 (11)	59 (36)	11 (7)	14 (9)	17 (11)	42 (26)
Pawn your property or your shared property	7 (4)	61 (38)	15 (9)	24 (16)	16 (10)	37 (23)

Risk-Attitude Scale

The following items describe a number of different behaviours. Please read each item and report how often you have done this using the following scale: Very unlikely, Unlikely, Not sure, Likely, Very likely (N, %).

	VU	U	NS	L	VL
Betting a day's income at the horse races	126 (79)	16 (10)	13 (8)	3 (2)	2 (1)
Buying an illegal drug for your own use	76 (48)	34 (21)	16 (10)	20 (12)	14 (9)
Deciding to share an apartment with someone you don't know well	91 (57)	33 (21)	22 (14)	12 (7)	2 (1)
Driving home after you had three drinks in the last two hours	91 (57)	27 (17)	14 (9)	21 (13)	7 (4)
Frequent binge drinking	79 (49)	24 (15)	15 (9)	30 (19)	12 (8)
Taking a medical drug that has a high likelihood of negative side effects	86 (54)	26 (16)	24 (15)	18 (11)	6 (4)
Engaging in unprotected sex	51 (32)	34 (21)	27 (17)	37 (23)	11 (7)
Shoplifting a small item (e.g. a lipstick or a pen)	93 (58)	43 (27)	12 (8)	5 (3)	7 (4)
Smoking a pack of cigarettes per day	84 (52)	30 (19)	8 (5)	14 (9)	24 (15)
Wearing provocative or unconventional clothes on occasion	90 (56)	16 (10)	29 (18)	20 (13)	5 (3)
Engaging in sexual activity for money	105 (66)	11 (7)	20 (12)	15 (9)	9 (6)
Walking home alone at night in a somewhat unsafe area of town	83 (52)	11 (7)	21 (13)	39 (24)	6 (4)
Gambling a week's income at a casino	124 (77)	8 (5)	13 (8)	11 (7)	4 (3)
Having an affair with a married man or woman	89 (56)	30 (19)	10 (6)	20 (12)	11 (7)
Consuming five or more servings of alcohol in a single evening	74 (46)	11 (7)	8 (5)	39 (24)	28 (18)

Strike-Back Measure

Listed below are a number of statements concerning your personal feelings. Read each item and decide whether the answer is positive (Yes) or negative (No) for you (N, %).

	Yes	No
Have you ever been scared about your safety or somebody else's safety?	136 (85)	24 (15)
Have you ever been scared about your survival or somebody else's survival?	134 (84)	26 (16)
Have you ever thought about engaging yourself in strike-back behaviour (leaving an abusive partner, fighting back or killing an abusive partner) to protect yourself?	108 (67)	52 (33)
Have you ever thought about engaging yourself in strike-back behaviour (leaving an abusive partner, fighting back or killing an abusive partner) to protect one of your friends?	77 (48)	83 (52)
Have you ever thought about engaging yourself in strike-back behaviour (leaving an abusive partner, fighting back or killing an abusive partner) to protect a family member?	124 (77)	36 (23)
Have you ever thought about engaging yourself in strike-back behaviour (leaving an abusive partner, fighting back or killing an abusive partner) to protect your kid(s)?	124 (77)	36 (23)
Have you ever been engaged in strike-back behaviour (leaving an abusive partner, fighting back or killing an abusive partner) to protect yourself?	96 (60)	64 (40)
Have you ever been engaged in strike-back behaviour (living an abusive partner, fighting back or killing an abusive partner) to protect one of your friends?	53 (33)	107 (67)
Have you ever been engaged in strike-back behaviour (leaving an abusive partner, fighting back or killing an abusive partner) to protect a family member?	72 (45)	88 (55)
Have you ever been engaged in strike-back behaviour (leaving an abusive partner, fighting back or killing an abusive partner) to protect your kids?	82 (51)	78 (49)
Have you ever been scared of leaving an abusive partner by fear of the consequences?	123 (77)	37 (23)

Self-Defence Measure

Please answer the following questions by checking either Yes or No. Check Yes only to those items that you have done intentionally, or on purpose, to defend yourself, a friend, a family member or your kid(s) (N, %).

	Yes	No
Have you ever used rationalisation to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (Involves explaining an unacceptable behaviour or feeling in a rational or logical manner, avoiding the true reasons for the behaviour. For example, a person who is turned down for a date might rationalise the situation by saying they were not attracted to the other person anyway, or a student might blame a poor exam score on the instructor rather than his or her lack of preparation. When confronted by success or failure, people tend to attribute achievement to their own qualities and skills while failures are blamed on other people or outside forces.)	119 (74)	41 (26)
Have you ever used projection to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (Involves taking our own unacceptable qualities or feelings and ascribing them to other people. For example, consider a person in a couple who has thoughts of infidelity. Instead of dealing with these undesirable thoughts consciously, he or she subconsciously projects these feelings onto the other person, and begins to think that the other has thoughts of infidelity and may be having an affair. Projection works by allowing the expression of the desire or impulse, but in a way that the ego cannot recognize, therefore reducing anxiety.)	68 (43)	92 (57)
Have you ever used introjection to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (Involves subconsciously 'takes in' the imprint of another person including all their attitudes, messages, prejudices, expressions, even the sound of their voice, etc. This often is observed in children as they introject aspects of the parent into themselves. For instance a child has a parent who is very spiritual. The child incorporates spiritually into himself.)	95 (59)	65 (41)
Have you ever used identification to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (Modelling one's behaviour and/or character after someone else. For instance Sally is only four years old but she tries to look and act exactly like her mother. Last week, Sally went into her mother's bedroom and decorated herself with lipstick, face cream, and mascara.)	67 (42)	93 (58)
Have you ever used isolation of affect to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (It is the separation of memory from emotion… The person can remember and talk about the trauma but feels no emotion. For instance a person who talks about a car accident where he lost family members as if it is someone else's story.)	130 (81)	30 (19)
Have you ever used sublimation to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (It is the redirection of impulses into socially acceptable activities - normal and healthy. For example, a man who is dissatisfied with his sex life but who has not stepped out on his wife becomes very busy repairing his house while his wife is out of town).	104 (65)	56 (35)
Have you ever used displacement to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (This defence reduces anxiety or pressure by transferring feelings toward one person to another. For instance, a salesman is angered by his superior but suppresses his anger; later, on return to his home, he punishes one of his children for misbehaviour that would usually be tolerated or ignored.)	71 (44)	89 (56)

Have you ever used repression to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (Painful, frightening, or threatening emotions, memories, impulses or drives that are subconsciously pushed or 'stuffed' inside. For instance, soldiers exposed to traumatic experiences in concentration camps during wartime sometimes had amnesia and were unable to recall any part of their ordeal or an adult who was molested as a child has no recollection of the event and believes the parent who molested her was wonderful.)	136 (85)	24 (15)
Have you ever used suppression to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (Painful, frightening, or threatening emotions, memories, impulses or drives that are consciously pushed or 'stuffed' inside. For instance, a young man at work finds that he is letting thoughts about a date that evening interfere with his duties; he decides not to think about plans for the evening until he leaves work or a student goes on vacation worried that she may be failing; she decides not to spoil her holiday by thinking of school.)	123 (77)	37 (23)
Have you ever used conversion to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (Mental conflict converted to a physical symptom. For example, a woman witnesses her spouse engaging in an affair and converts the anxiety of seeing that into blindness. The blindness alleviates the anxiety.)	57 (36)	103 (64)
Have you ever used regression to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (Giving up current level of development and going back to a prior level. For instance, a child who has been potty-trained for 5 years begins wetting the bed when her parents are arguing.)	78 (49)	82 (51)
Have you ever used reaction formation to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (Believing or behaving the opposite of the way one actually does. This is commonly seen in individuals recovering from addiction. For example, a man suffers from alcoholism and has entered rehabilitation. What he really wants is to drink, but he expresses that he hates alcohol or a married woman who is disturbed by feeling attracted to one of her husband's friends treats him rudely.)	89 (56)	71 (44)
Have you ever used simple denial to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (Unconsciously refusing to accept what has happened that is too difficult to bear. For instance, a father witnesses his child being killed in a car accident, but repeatedly says, 'That wasn't my son. No, no, it couldn't have been my son. He was at soccer practice.')	100 (62)	60 (38)
Have you ever used splitting to explain, leave or deal with some situations? (The inability to see grey areas. A person who uses splitting sees things as all good or all bad. This often is seen in borderline personality disorder. For instance, a woman enters a new relationship and believes her partner to be 'perfect'. When the partner does something wrong, the same woman immediately believes the partner to be horrible. She is unable to see that sometimes, good people make mistakes.)	67 (42)	93 (58)
I have thought of or already kicked back an abusive person	42 (26)	118 (74)
I have thought of or already punched back an abusive person	65 (41)	95 (59)
I have thought of or already shoved an abusive person	72 (45)	88 (55)
I have thought of or already slapped an abusive person	68 (43)	92 (57)
I have thought of or already pushed an abusive person	90 (56)	70 (44)
I have thought of or already burnt an abusive person	37 (23)	123 (77)
I have thought of or already bit an abusive person	39 (24)	121 (76)
I have thought of or already stabbed an abusive person	43 (27)	117 (73)
I have thought of or already choked an abusive person	16 (10)	144 (90)

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MC-SDS)

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true (T) or false (F) as it pertains to you personally (N, %).

	T	F
Before voting I thoroughly investigate the qualifications of all the candidates	124 (77)	36 (23)
I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble	112 (70)	48 (30)
It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged	67 (42)	93 (58)
I have never intensely disliked anyone	64 (40)	96 (60)
On occasion I have had doubts about my ability to succeed in life	101 (63)	59 (37)
I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way	25 (16)	135 (84)
I am always careful about my manner of dress	38 (24)	122 (76)
My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out in a restaurant	88 (55)	72 (45)
If I could get into a movie without paying and be sure I was not seen I would probably do it	68 (43)	92 (57)
On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability	28 (18)	132 (82)
I like to gossip at times	42 (26)	118 (74)
There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right	22 (14)	138 (86)
No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener	60 (38)	100 (62)
I can remember 'playing sick' to get out of something	83 (52)	77 (48)
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone	35 (22)	125 (78)
I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake	61 (38)	99 (62)
I always try to practice what I preach	126 (79)	34 (21)
I don't find it particularly difficult to get along with loud mouthed, obnoxious people	102 (64)	58 (36)
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget	77 (48)	83 (52)
When I don't know something I don't at all mind admitting it	60 (38)	100 (62)
I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable	108 (67)	52 (33)
At times I have really insisted on having things my own way	54 (34)	106 (66)
There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things	22 (14)	138 (86)
I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrongdoings	55 (34)	105 (66)
I never resent being asked to return a favour	111 (69)	49 (31)
I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own	107 (67)	53 (33)
I never make a long trip without checking the safety of my car	117 (73)	43 (27)
There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others	75 (47)	85 (53)
I have almost never felt the urge to tell someone off	54 (34)	106 (66)
I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me	40 (25)	120 (75)
I have never felt that I was punished without cause	65 (41)	95 (59)
I sometimes think when people have a misfortune they only got what they deserved	62 (39)	98 (61)
I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings	119 (74)	41 (26)

Appendix B: Ethics Documentation

Ethics Approval RO1729

Lisa Marlow

Sent: 25/05/2014

To: Gaelle Hamonic

Cc: Wayne Petherick.

Dear Gaelle and Wayne, with apologies for the delay, this is a brief email to let you know that BUHREC has now approved your project 'Crime Victims and Criminals: the same needs or different? An Analysis of Victim Motivations based on Existing Offenders typologies'. A hard copy letter confirming approval will be sent to you via internal mail shortly.

Please be aware that the approval is given subject to the protocol of the study being undertaken as described in your application, with amendments per our correspondence, and in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council's National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research.

You are reminded that the Principal Investigator must immediately report anything that might warrant review of ethical approval of the project.

Should you have any queries or experience any problems, please liaise directly with Ethics Office early in your research project: Telephone: (07) 559 54194, Facsimile: (07) 559 51120, Email: buhrec@bond.edu.au.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Lisa Marlow
Research Ethics Manager
Office of Research Services

Telephone: +61 7 5595 4194
Facsimile: +61 7 5595 1120
Bond University | Gold Coast, Queensland, 4229, Australia CRICOS Provider Code: 00017B

Criminology Department
Faculty of Social Science
Bond University
Gold Coast, Queensland, 4229, Australia

BUHREC Protocol Number: RO1729

9th February 2014

Explanatory Statement

Dear Respondent,

You are invited to complete a questionnaire regarding victimisation. There is little research that has examined victims' feelings, personality traits and behaviours prior to, during and after the crime. Therefore, there remains a need to understand why victims are selected in the first place and what is the context of their victimisation. That is the purpose of this study. Participating in this research may provide context to what happened, will help to understand the factors that lead to victimisation and it also allows us to compare victims' experiences with other similar circumstances to see what could have been done to prevent it. It will also furnish long-term advantages such as a better management of victims in specialised services or more effective therapeutic interventions for instance.

We have designed this 50 minute online survey, available via the survey monkey platform using the following link
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/GaelleHamonicPhDresearch
to determine different personality traits and behaviours. This research will cause you no physical, social or economic risks, however this research will ask questions that may cause some discomfort. Indeed, before agreeing to take part in this research you have to be aware that this survey contains general questions such "I feel tense if I am alone with just one other person" but also other more sensitive questions such as "Has imagining that someone was causing you pain ever aroused you sexually?" We built the questionnaire in a way that it does not include any questions about the crime per se to minimise the risk of bringing back memories of your victimisation, but if you find any psychological discomfort and feel the need to talk to somebody please contact Lifeline on 131 114.

We would like to emphasise that your participation in this study is strictly voluntary and once you have filled out the survey there will be no way to link your responses to you personally and all other information will be de-identified. The data will be kept for five years and your responses will be recorded on a form that contains a code number and only the researcher will have access to them. You will find at the end of this page a consent form. Please read carefully all the information in the explanatory statement and

feel free to contact Dr Wayne Petherick (07 5595 1124) or Gaëlle Brotto (0449 073 401) if you have any questions about the study.

Should you have any complaints concerning the manner in which this research is being conducted please make contact with:

Bond University Human Research Ethics Committee
c/o Bond University Office of Research Services
Bond University, Gold Coast, 4229
Tel: +61 7 5595 4194 Fax: +61 7 5595 1120
Email: buhrec@bond.edu.au

We would appreciate it if you would complete and submit the enclosed questionnaire by February 2015.

Thank you in advance for your help in this matter.

Sincerely,

Dr Wayne Petherick Gaelle Brotto

Consent Form

I have read the material above, and any questions I asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand a copy of this form will be made available to me for the relevant information and phone numbers. I realise that I may withdraw without prejudice at any time.

Given that this survey was delivered online, there was an Electronic Consent form at the start of the survey to which participants were asked to tick response buttons if they agree to voluntarily participate in the study.

Please select your choice below.

Clicking on the "agree" button below indicates that:

- you have read the above information
- you voluntarily agree to participate
- you are aware that you can withdraw the study at any time

If you do not wish to participate in the research study, please decline participation by clicking on the "disagree" button.

- agree
- disagree

Debrief Form

Regarding Participation in the Research Study:
"Crime Victims and Criminals: The Same Needs or Different? An Analysis of Victim Motivations Based on Existing Offenders Typologies"

THANK YOU for your participation in this study!
Your contribution is greatly appreciated.

Purpose of the Study
You were informed earlier that the purpose of the study was a need to understand why those who are victimised may be selected in the first instance by examining victims' emotional states, personality traits and behaviours. This is the main purpose of the research, but we were also trying to classify those personality traits and behaviours that played a role in your victimisation. To be clear, for decades, scholars have created criminal typologies to understand and classify the motivations behind their acts. Inspired by those typologies and by the fact that the motivations that they contain are a fitting representation of general motivational dynamics, we developed a victim typology for the purpose of contextualising the behaviours that occur when somebody found themselves in harm's way. The purpose of the questionnaire that you completed is to help us identify and classify those behaviours and:

- may provide context to what happened
- will allow us to compare your experiences to see what, if anything, could have been done to prevent those circumstances developing

Unfortunately, in order to properly collect the data, we could not provide you with all of these details prior to your participation. We wanted to ensure that your reactions in this study were spontaneous and not influenced by prior knowledge about the purpose of the study. We hope you understand the reason for this small omission.

Confidentiality
Please note that although the stated purpose of this study has changed from the originally noted, everything else on the consent form is correct. This includes the ways in which we will keep your data confidential.

Now that you know the true purpose of our study and are fully informed, you may decide that you do not want your data used in this research. If you would like your data removed from the study and permanently deleted please feel free to withdraw your data at this point. The following question will allow you to choose to continue with the study by selecting "I agree" or to withdraw from the study at this point by selecting "I do not agree":

- "I agree" for my data to be used for this study
- "I do not agree" for my data to be used for this study

Final Report
If you would like to receive a copy of the final report of this study (or a summary of the findings) when it is completed, please feel free to contact us.

Useful Contact Information
If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study, its purpose or procedures, or if you have a research-related problem, please feel free to contact Dr Wayne Petherick (07 5595 1124) or Gaëlle Brotto (0449 073 401).

Should you have any complaints concerning the manner in which this research is being conducted please make contact with:

Bond University Human Research Ethics Committee
c/o Bond University Office of Research Services
Bond University, Gold Coast, 4229
Tel: +61 7 5595 4194 Fax: +61 7 5595 1120
Email: buhrec@bond.edu.au

If you should find yourself experiencing any anxiety or other emotional states after completing the study or find that some questions or aspects of the study triggered distress, talking with a qualified clinician may help. If you feel you would like assistance please contact Lifeline on 131 114.

Please keep a copy of this form for your future reference.

Once again, THANK YOU for your participation in this study!